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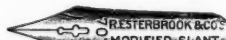
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The New Teacher.

By FORREST CRISSEY.*

For the moment, and within her field the "new teacher" of a country school is the most important personage on earth. At least, such was Harlow's experience. If any ruling queen were to abdicate her throne and appoint from the noble women of her court the future sovereign of her people, the new monarch could not inspire in her subjects an interest to be compared in its intensity to that of Harlow and his companions as they waited about the school-house steps for the arrival of the new teacher.

An element of delicious uncertainty entered into their speculations concerning her personality. Had they known, for a surety, that her face would prove to be as sweet and gentle as that of Faith clinging to the wave-washed cross, in the frontispiece of the family Bible, they could not have looked down the road with half so keen an expectancy. Such a certainty would have removed the chance that coming monitor of their destinies might be a woman strangely different in kind from any they had before known—so very different that they could not even dream how she would look as she took her place behind the familiar desk and called for the names of the pupils with which to fill out her "roster" for the trustees.

The very knowledge that any face which his fancy might delineate must, of necessity, be far from a likeness to the actual countenance of the new teacher was, in itself, the source of a certain keen, speculative joy to Harlow. It gave him that unfulfilling human pleasure of striving after the unattainable.

The spirit of newness was in the air. Potential surprises lurked in every prospective hour of that first day. Not only was the teacher new, but there were new faces among the pupils, new books to be studied, new seats to be chosen, new companionships to be established on the playground, new rivalries to be set up, and new friendships to be formed.

Harlow was proudly conscious that his winter's growth of tawny hair had been "shingled" until the depression between the two cords at the back of his neck was as conspicuous as his protruding eyes and his shapeless expanse of bare feet. He was clothed in the newness of butternut brown waist and "pants," which had that morning been ironed to a metallic stiffness, and a speckled palm-leaf hat, which his mother had bound about the edge with blue cambric, made its virgin appearance upon his glistening head.

Many of his playmates, particularly the girls, were resplendent in fresh raiment far more elaborate than his own, but even that did not alter his proud consciousness that he was a partaker in the things that day displayed to the world for the first time. The bright disks of the dandelions in the grass, the fresh foliage of the trees, and the bouquets of flowers in the hands of the girls, all emphasized, with the powerful undertone of nature, Harlow's impression that all things were made new and that

it was a day of great and sweet beginnings. Even the faces of his schoolmates seemed touched with all-powerful freshness.

But the focal point of all his expectancy was the new teacher. And she was coming up the road with Phoebe Hogeboom! In a few moments she would actually stand before them and the mystery of her personality would be forever solved! As the news of her approach passed from lip to lip the girls gathered in excited little groups, and those who had brought bouquets ran inside the school-room, fluttered about the desk, and finally succeeded in arranging the floral tributes in patent-medicine bottles, tumblers, and broken-nosed pitchers.

For some whimsical reason Harlow wished to gain his first impression of the new teacher as she stood behind her desk; consequently, he left the groups which ran to welcome her at the cedar posts which guarded the entrance of the school yard, nor did he join the more bashful ones loitering about the front steps in attitudes of assumed indifference. Instead, he went into the "Bentys," placed his dinner-pail upon the window-sill, tossed his straw hat upon one of the highest hooks, and then took his position at one of the rear benches to await the great moment.

The heavy honeyed odor that exuded from the purple lilacs on the desk penetrated to the remotest corner of the room and almost overpowered the fainter perfume of the violets, the Mayflowers, the crab-apple blossoms, and the other wild blossoms gathered from wood and roadside. The cloying sweetness of the smell seemed indescribably delicious to the boy and gave him a subtle assurance that the face of the new teacher would, in some rare and strange way, yield a fitting and harmonious response to the beauty and the perfume of the flowers. In that waiting moment he wished that he had dared to bring—at the peril of being laughed at by the boys—some of the drooping plumes of bloom which weighed down the old lilac-bush at the corner of the upright, in the front yard at home.

A sudden clatter of feet in the entry, followed by a significant hush of voices, instantly banished his regretful musings and he looked up into the smiling face of a tall, slender woman, to whose hands and skirts a half-dozen of the smaller girls were clinging. For once in his life Harlow found his fondest dreams outstripped by the reality. That moment gave him an ideal by which to measure all womanhood—a standard of feminine loveliness with which all women were subjected to a hopeless comparison.

The angelic beings of the steel engravings in the family were instantly dethroned in his imagination by the human vision before him—nor did the pictorial ideals ever regain their old place! He realized that the new teacher had come from a world remote from his own. Even the soft gray dress which she wore, the grace of her movements, and the unconscious queenliness with which she held her head erect told him this. A single jonquil showed its yellow star in the black coils of her hair, a wayward strand of which coiled carelessly down over the blue-veined whiteness of her left temple. Sparkles of laughter seemed to lurk in the depths of her long-lashed eyes, and the corners of her mouth had deep and witching indentures emphasized by the brooding smile which hovered perpetually about her curving lips.

But the stroke which welded forever the chains of the

*This delightful description is a chapter from "The Country Boy," by Forrest Crissey. The book is recommended to teachers everywhere as a sympathetic and altogether helpful study of the thoughts and feelings of a boy. Mr. Crissey understands the country boy, and his book is a real contribution to the best literature of child study. The extract here presented is used by permission of Fleming H. Revell Company, Chicago, the publishers.

boy's idolatry of the new teacher was the sound of her voice as it led the school in morning song. With wavering uncertainty the pupils began the prophetic, swinging measure of—

"When the birds shall return, Nellie Wildwood,
From the Northland to sing round my home."

He had heard the song many times before, but it was suddenly transformed by the depth and sweetness of the voice which came from the open lips of the new teacher as she stood erect behind the hedge of flowers on her desk. Harlow was sure that he had met his first love, and for months he worshiped silently at her shrine with an abject devotion, but she knew it not.

Later, the days came in which she often looked longingly out of the east window—and looked so steadfastly that he saw a mist of tears clouding the brightness of her eyes. One night he forgot his spelling-book, returned for it, and found her head buried in her arm upon the desk. His first impulse was to flee, but he could not. Stealing softly to her side he laid his hand upon her arm. She started nervously, looked thru her tears into his wet eyes, encircled his waist with her arm, and said:

"What is it, dear?"

"I'm—I'm—s-sorry for you," he sobbed.

She drew him close against her, and again her head dropped upon her arm. He could feel her breast shaking with sobs, but she did not let him go. An hour later she walked 'cross-lots, over the fields and thru Thompson's woods with him, and kissed him good-bye at his own gate. He wondered why she did not tell him the cause of her grief, but his heart was swelling with a great and inexpressible joy, and he wondered if Heaven could hold a sweeter happiness than he had tasted in that hour!

An Institutional Community.

By F. RICE, Jr.

The new New York Juvenile asylum at Echo Hills up the Hudson will, when it is completed, house one of the most admirable educational institutions in the world, in a thoroughly admirable way. Not even in Germany, the land of educational specialties, will there be found such a school, or system of schools. The institution will actually consist of a little village of sixty-five separate buildings designed to shelter about one thousand boys and girls taken from the city streets and taught to live as rational beings should live. A model school community,

it is in fact,—one which the architects, Messrs. York and Sawyer of New York city, have laid out with utmost care and thought to take the place of the present uncomfortable quarters of the asylum in Washington Heights.

The asylum itself is one of New York's older institutions, founded about fifty years ago, at a time when Washington Heights was far out in the country and when the "cottage plan" of institutional buildings had not been developed. The site was at first an ideal one. During the past two decades, however, the great city has slowly but surely been growing around the asylum premises, so that a removal to a more rural neighborhood has seemed desirable in order that the children may still be protected from the evils of over-crowded living and indiscriminate association.

A competition for a new plant resulted in the choice of the architects just named. Given opportunities such as men do not often get for developing original ideas in planning out a scheme of what may be called sociological architecture, they have created a truly astonishing array of buildings. The so-called "cottage plan" will be followed thruout. The children will be housed in small detached dwellings, each of which has rooms for twenty children and each of which is in charge of a "cottage father" or "cottage mother." The structures are architecturally in the Queen Anne style. They are divided into two classes: Those with separate rooms, in which the conditions of living will be similar to those in any good American home, and those with the dormitory system whose arrangements will resemble the accommodations of a high-class boarding school. Each house of the former type has on the lower floor a living room, kitchen, dining room, large hall, and several closets; while the upper part is divided into twenty private rooms, generous quarters for the house superintendent and the bath room. The other houses will have large dormitories up stairs.

Residence in the houses with the separate rooms is to be regarded as a special honor. No boy or girl will be entitled to have a room of his own unless he has proved by good conduct in a dormitory that he is likely to be competent to take care of it. In general, however, the management will aim to avoid in the institution anything suggesting to the children the idea of restraint. The atmosphere everywhere is to be that of a home community, not that of a place of commitment.

The grounds themselves are situated on a beautiful sloping hillside. The architects have given full importance to the landscape features of their work which are expected to count for so much in the sociological aspect of the plans. All roadways are kept at the back of the buildings so far as possible and only foot paths cut the green before them. In the center is an open tract of eighty acres comprising a common, parade ground, a large athletic field with a building containing swimming pools and baths, and even a minute lake with a fountain in the center. At one end of the rectangle stands the church, while clustered about the sides and the other end are the cottages, administration building, two large school-houses, and quarters for the industrial department. The houses for the girls stand by themselves. The designers have added several artificial ponds, trees and shrubbery have been set out or rearranged as best suits the broad outlook, and when the grounds are finished they will be as carefully perfected in their "naturalness" as any private park in the world.

The central kitchen building is perhaps the most interesting member of the entire group. Here all the food for the entire institution will be prepared. This



New York Juvenile Asylum at Dobbs Ferry.

building will be isolated at one side of the grounds and will be admirably equipped for its work of feeding more than 1,000 hungry little people. For purposes of distributing the meals amongst the various cottages an automobile is to be employed, the apportionment for each house being put in a "hot box" and kept warm by the machine's hot water tanks. In this manner the institution will gain the economy of a central cook-house and will still have the advantage of being able to serve home dinners.

The children who will enjoy living in so delightful a home town are not, as many people suppose, reprobates. In many instances they have committed no offense whatever and are simply victims of dire home circumstances. These charges of the Juvenile asylum, it should be said, come for the most part from thickly populated portions of the metropolis where there are very few native Americans. In these parts of the city very many families, coming to this country without money from other lands and finding it exceedingly difficult to get established here, are actually unable to support their children and make a voluntary "surrender" of them rather than allow them to share in a painful and often hopeless destitution. A great many of the inmates come from poor homes not thru being surrendered by their parents, but committed by the department of charities which finds that their parents cannot possibly support and protect them as children should be kept. A third class is composed of those who are committed by the courts for minor offences. These last are the only inmates of the institution for whose support the city of New York pays, and for them it pays but \$80 a year. The other children, who form the majority, are maintained entirely on funds contributed by philanthropic people.

Anthropometric Tests.

Dr. R. S. Woodworth, of Columbia university, is to go to the St. Louis exposition to take charge of the anthropometric and psychological laboratories there. He will make tests on Filipinos, Pantagonians, Indians, Africans, Malays, and Arabs, and will also conduct a series of tests on Americans for purposes of comparison.

Dr. Woodworth has designed a piece of apparatus by which the keenness of sight of the savage races will be tested without bringing in the element of language. Interest is added to these tests by the fact that scientists believe that savages are affected by far-sightedness in the same way that highly civilized races have a tendency toward myopia. The tests for color blindness will also be made on the savages. It is a known fact that the savage tribes have no word for the color blue in their vocabulary. This has led to the belief that savages do not see the color blue, and the supposition has been strengthened by many experiments. Dr. Woodworth will make this test by having the subject mark off the colors on the spectrum.

In addition to the tests for sight there will be examinations for memory and ability to work some simple device, such as a combination lock. This test, which involves the opening of a box by four separate movements, has been submitted at various times to adults, children, dogs, monkeys, and cats. Adults may take a minute or more to open the box on the first trial, but on the second they require only five or six seconds. The monkey can open the box accurately and in a comparatively short time. Dogs and cats practically never learn.

Dr. Woodworth is also to use a maze in his experiments. This, altho a simple device, will be equally fair for men and animals. It is believed that the reaction time of a savage is quicker than that of a civilized person, and the test will throw light on this point.

The athletes who gather at the exposition will also be the subjects of various examinations. These tests will be made with a view to ascertaining the relative value of athletics in the mental as well as the physical development of man.

Echoes from a Boys' Garden.

By LOUISE KLEIN MILLER.

"Is this the place for the garden?" said Dick, as he gazed at the recently plowed and harrowed ground, full of witch grass, weeds, and glacial boulders.

"Yes," I said, "isn't it a good place to work?"

"I should think it is a good place to *work!*" he replied, with a rather savage emphasis upon work.

"May I have the first garden?" asked Robert.

"You know what is expected of the first garden," I cautioned.

"I should like the second," cried Mike.

"Don't be in too great haste; we must examine the plan of the garden first." At this suggestion they all arranged themselves to study the plan which was spread out on the grass before them.

"Is this the whole garden?" inquired Joe, who seemed to think it rather small.

"No, indeed!" I explained. "It is the plan of a garden to be planted by each boy, and drawn to a scale one-fourth of an inch to a foot. Do you understand what that means?"

"Does each fourth of an inch on the plan stand for a foot in the garden?" questioned Joe.

"What else could it mean?" said Dick.

"It is two and a half inches wide; how wide is the garden, Carl?" I inquired.

"That's easy," said Carl; "ten feet wide."

"It is twenty-two inches long; can you figure the length of the garden, Fred?" After some hesitation Mike offered to get him a big piece of paper and a long lead pencil.

"I know that," said James; "ninety feet."

"Good!" I exclaimed. "Now, boys, each of you is to have a space, ten feet wide and ninety feet long, to plant and keep in order. Can you do it?"

"Yes!" "Of course!" "I should think so!" "We'll try!" "We could take one twice as large!" and other exclamations came in chorus.

"Roy, I want you to try to direct this work. The plan indicates ten feet for flowers, ten for squashes, six each for lettuce, radishes, carrots, beets; then a four foot path; six feet each for tomatoes, turnips, peas, and beans, and nine each for corn and potatoes."

"Does each boy plant all these things?" inquired Dick.

"Yes," I replied. "Now we will lay out the garden. Here is the measuring tape. I will hold one end, and Henry, you take the other. Each boy get a stake. Roy, take the plan and show the boys where to drive the stakes. Be careful; that line is not quite straight. We want everything done 'shipshape.' That is better," I discovered, looking along the line.

"Is that all right?" inquired Roy, his face flushed with excitement.

"Yes, you did that very well," giving him a nod of approval.

"Robert, would you like to direct the staking off of the front of the garden?"

"Thank you, I should. Are the gardens to be close together?" he asked, examining the plan for assistance.

"No, see, there is to be a foot-path between the gardens," pointing to the plans.

"May we do it all ourselves?" asked Robert.

"Yes, if you can. Be sure you are right and then go ahead. As soon as you have finished you may select your gardens and give me your names and the number of your gardens."

"What shall we do next?" inquired Mike, anxious to get to work.

"You may stake off your own garden now, and to-morrow we will begin the planting."

When we said good-night I felt the hardest part of the work had been done.

"What are these?" inquired Henry as he examined some plants in a box.

"Don't you know a tomato plant when you see it?" asked Dick, with apparent disgust.

"Hand me a plant, will you please, Fred. You know, boys, that plants, as well as animals, take food in order to grow. Where will this plant get its food?"

"The roots will take some food from the ground," said Carl, "and I think the leaves take some from the air."

"Carl is right, but can these roots take up particles of soil?"

"No," said Mike; "they must have water, too."

"When you drop a lump of sugar into a cup of tea what happens to it?"

"It melts," cried Dick.

"It dissolves," said Henry, deliberately.

"Can you see it after it dissolves?"

"No."

"When you drink the tea what do you take also?"

"Sugar," came the reply.

"Why will the tomatoes and all other plants in the garden require rain or moisture?"

"I know," cried Carl; "to dissolve the soil so the plants can use it for food."

"Each boy take three plants. Be careful; do not injure the delicate root tips," I said, carefully removing a plant from the box.

"Where shall we plant them?" demanded Joe, rather helplessly.

"Examine the plant. It will show you just where to put them. Spread the roots out so they may get plenty of food. Well, that is a good beginning."

"Are these the potatoes?" asked Roy, after he had planted his tomatoes. "How many shall we plant?"

"It is about time you are doing some gardening," said Mike, with apparent amazement. "Don't you know you don't plant potatoes? That you have to cut them up into pieces?"

"Cut them up!" said Roy, in surprise: "how, this way?"

"You plant that piece without any eyes and see how many potatoes you get from that hill," said Mike.

"Are you all ready, boys? We will take the potatoes next. They are thickened underground stems or tubers. We do not plant the whole potato, but cut them up into pieces, each having two 'eyes' or 'buds.'"

"What do you do that for?" persisted Roy.

"The white part of the potato, which is used for food, is the material the plant stored away to develop these buds. A new plant will grow from each strong eye. By the time this supply is exhausted the plant is strong enough to take food from the ground and the atmosphere."

"What makes potatoes shrivel up in the cellars after they have sent out their tender sprouts?" asked Dick.

"Can you answer that question from what I have said? Think it over. In a few days we will pull up a plant and see how it has grown."

"Shall we plant the potatoes as we did the tomatoes?" asked Joe.

"No; make a straight furrow, put in some manure and a small quantity of commercial fertilizer where you expect to put the potatoes. Be careful to mix the soil thoroughly. The plan will show you where to plant them. Then you will have to spend some time fighting weeds."

"I never saw so many weeds in all my life," said Hugo, in a discouraged tone of voice.

"But, my dear boy, remember, every time you pull up a weed or hoe your garden, you loosen the soil and a

farmer would say you set free the plant food in the soil. If it were not for the weeds, cornfields would not often be plowed or gardens hoed. Keep at the weeds. Get all of them out. It is a good thing for the garden and will pay."

"It is easy enough to get rid of the weeds, but just look at those rocks!" exclaimed Mike, the great beads of perspiration on his freckled nose. "Do they grow like weeds? I am sure they are getting larger every day."

"When you take to gardening there are a great many things for you to learn."

"Where did all these rocks come from?" asked Henry.

"They are glacial boulders and were brought from the north by the great ice plows or glaciers. Growing larger? No, indeed! They are gradually becoming smaller, breaking up, and forming soil. They have had an interesting history which you will enjoy learning some day. Take out all you can with the wheelbarrow. This is good weather and things will grow well."

A few weeks later:

"Can you tell me what is the matter with my squash vine?" said Carl, coming with a large, brilliant orange blossom in each hand. "I have hoed it, put some commercial fertilizer around it, and picked off every squash bug I could find, and only a few of the blossoms have squashes on them."

"That is a very natural question to ask. Who planted cucumbers?"

"I did," answered Hugo.

"Will you please go to your garden and see if you can find any difference in your cucumber blossoms. James, examine your pumpkin vines."

In a short time the boys returned with the different kinds of flowers, much to the gardener's astonishment.

"Robert, you may bring me the small cornstalk from your garden. We will examine the squash, cucumber,



Gardens of Lowthorpe School, Miss I. Louise Klein Miller, principal.

and pumpkin blossoms first. Joe, put your finger in the blossom which has no squash.

"It is covered with yellow dust," exclaimed Joe.

"Can you find yellow dust in the other flower?" I asked, watching him make the trial.

"No," he responded, "the inside of the flower is a different shape and it is sticky."

"Shake the yellow dust or pollen into that flower. What happens?"

"It sticks fast. What is that for?" opening his eyes in astonishment.

"The flower that bears the yellow dust is called the staminate flower. These little things that hold the pollen

are the stamens. The other is the pistillate flower and has the parts that will develop into seeds. We will cut thru the flower 'that has the squash.'"

"Look at the little seeds!" cried Henry.

"Oh, they're not seeds," said Mike. "Would you like to plant them? No use. They wouldn't grow. They are not ripe."

"You are quite right. They are not seeds, but ovules which will develop into seeds. Do you see that bee coming from that flower with his legs and body covered with pollen? Watch him."

"I wonder if he will find a flower with a squash. Yes, there he goes," said Fred.

"Let us go and watch him," said Robert, much excited. "Don't frighten him away. He seems to know just where to find the honey. See how he crawls over the sticky surface!"

"Off he goes!" said Mike.

"Ah, there it is—the yellow dust he dropped!" exclaimed Dick.

"All that was very simple, but now the wonder begins."

"What is that?" inquired James, with eager, listening eyes.

"When a pollen grain drops on the stigma of the pistil, as the sticky surface is called, it begins to germinate, or grow, and send down a pollen tube to one of the little ovules which you see, giving it the help it needs to make it develop into a perfect seed. A little plantlet is formed in each seed, and, while the seed ripens, these parts begin to thicken to form a protection for the growing seeds. Hand me some beans, Mike, please. Each of you take one and carefully remove the seed coat and examine the inside."

"Just look at the little plantlet!" said Fred.

"Isn't it wonderful?" said Henry, seriously. "Does each ovule need the help of a pollen grain to make it a seed?"

"Yes, think of all the seeds that will be found in the garden this summer. All flowers are not alike. Each has its own secret, which is worth finding out."

"I suppose there is something interesting about this cornstalk," said Carl, looking at it.

"Who can find the pollen?" I asked, shaking the stalk.

"I know," exclaimed Dick; "in the tassel at the top."

"The ovules are all covered with these husks. How do they get the help from the pollen?" A queer expression was on the faces of the boys.

"Let us remove the husks and——"

"Look at the silk!" interrupted Robert. "Why, each grain has a piece of silk. Oh, I know; the silk grows out beyond the husk and the pollen grain drops on the end of the silk," which was very good reasoning for Robert.

"But what a long pollen tube would have to grow to get down to some of the ovules," said Henry.

"Do you see any ovules that have not developed?" I asked, holding the ear up to view.

"Just look at the little grains around the top of the ear," said Carl, amused. "The silk was so short it could not get out of the husk, and did not get the pollen. Well, that is interesting."

"All go to your gardens and examine the flowers and pods of your peas and beans, and see if they have anything to tell you."

"You did good work while I was away, boys. The gardens look very well. They show who are the good workers."

"We have had such a good time and learned so many things," said Henry.

"Did you have any trouble with insects?" I inquired.

"Insects!" he exclaimed. "I should think so. We made a collection of the different ones we found—fifty-three."

"Which gave you most trouble?"

"Potato bugs, but we put 'bug death' on the vines

and that finished them," he said, with great satisfaction. "We find, if you want to destroy insects, you must know something of the way in which they take their food," said Joe, repeating some information he had recently acquired.

"What do you mean?" I inquired.

"Well, a potato bug has biting mouth parts and eats the leaves. If you put poison on the leaves they eat it, too, and that kills them."

"But," continued James, "a squash bug is different. He has a little sucking tube he puts into the leaf and sucks the sap, and would not get the poison. He has to be killed in another way."

"Are you interested in insects, John?" observing him listening to our conversation.

"Very much, and we have found so many different kinds. The lovely ground beetles, we were told, are *predaceous*, because they destroy wire worms and many bugs."

"Will you please look at my beets and carrots?" said Fred, from a distant garden. "I think they are fine!"

"What do you think of my squashes?" asked Henry, with pride.

"What have you done with all the vegetables you have raised?" I inquired, with interest.

"Ate some, sold some, gave some away, and these good things we are going to take to the fair," said Joe.

"I should like a list of the flowers and vegetables you raised, and one of the insects you found."

"Are we to have an exhibit at the fair?" inquired Dick.

"Yes, some special prizes are to be given for the products of the Boys' Garden. That will end the work for the year. Do any of you want a garden next year?"

"Yes, indeed!" "We all do." "May I have my same garden?" "About twenty more boys want gardens," was the hearty response.

Making a Man of the Indian.*

By WALTER H. PAGE, editor of the *World's Work*.

This year the North American Indian will make his last spectacular rally—at the World's Fair at St. Louis. Such a show as that cannot be repeated many times in the future, because in two years hence the largest body of Indians in the Indian territory is to renounce its tribal relations, and then the shrinkage of the great Indian area will have gone on until there are simply little reservations here and there, but no great tract left given wholly to them.

There are two things—two lines of thought—that seem to me to converge here in rather a dramatic fashion. One is this: It took us a very long time to find out the real secret of educating a backward people, or, I might say, educating any people in a direct sense. Education as we have conceived it and practiced it for many years came down to us from the Middle Ages, and, I suppose, it yielded less easily to change suggested by common sense than any other institution that we inherited. It meant little or nothing when applied to a backward people.

Most of us, ourselves, suffered in our formal education by the fact that too much of it had to do with things that were devised hundreds and hundreds of years ago. It is not until our own day, until our own time, we might say until the day before yesterday, that it really dawned upon us that the secret of human progress, the real economic secret of human progress, was in teaching a man to do the thing that lay right before him, the thing that he had to do.

We began first to work it out in the neglected classes of people and the backward races. It is a familiar story, and a little nearer home than the Indian, how this

* Substance of an address delivered before the New York Council of the Sequoia League.

method of education applied to the negro in the South really showed the way whereby the man who had been a slave and whose conditions of life and the life surrounding him did not give him an opportunity to profit by formal education in many walks of life—how his whole life problem was simply solved by it. We have found it out—not only how to train the neglected classes—and we are now even becoming wise enough to teach our own children some common sense.

Now all this time that education meant some formal and formidable process of training the mind almost wholly by books—and books were almost the only tools that we knew in the training of the mind—all the time that this was going on, we were going thru a sort of mixed comedy and tragedy in our dealing with the Indian. We pushed him further and further backward; and then, to gratify his vanity, as well as to relieve ourselves of responsibility, we began to deal with him as if he were a foreign nation. And so we used to make treaties with him, and go thru such formalities as if he were a real foreign people. The necessary result of that story was that it led to fighting.

And then we came down gradually to the era when their hunting grounds were taken away, and their old occupations were gone. We had, then, no better judgment than to give a dole of rations and flimsy blankets to him, reflecting no credit upon our judgment and certainly doing nothing to build up his character. It is a shameful story, all that part of it; but I think we ought to learn this from it: it shows how we had not applied common sense to education. In all those days hardly a man of influence—of national influence, at any rate—looked that problem squarely in the face. Nobody seemed to say: Here is a human being. If he can be trained right, he can adjust himself to the civilization that is inevitably pressing around him. But, if we leave him alone, he will fight. Finally, he will be pushed to one side and exterminated.

But, at last, we have been coming nearer and nearer, after the fighting period and thru a period of scandal, to understand that by industrial education Indians can be made a part of the American democracy; can be trained just as any other men are; can take up the natural pur-

suits for which they are fitted. They can no longer hunt buffaloes; there are no buffaloes, but they can grow their corn and their beans in a greatly improved manner; they can do anything that other men can do under similar conditions; and we passed an act permitting them to become citizens. We have encouraged many schools; they now wear what persons, curiously enough call citizen's clothes, meaning clothes like our own, and their school attendance is many thousand.

The curious thing about the conduct of Indian education, and the management of Indians is that it is all centered in Washington. But we have some tribes of Indians in the northern part of our great Western country, and others in the South, who have not even a common language, and who have nothing to do with each other; and it is a sort of misfortune about the situation that all this machinery has to be directed from Washington, to apply to conditions of one Indian tribe living in a place where certain industries only are profitable, and to apply at the same time to a tribe living far away under wholly different climatic and industrial conditions, where other industries are profitable.

The thing to do, therefore, is to see to it, and to induce everybody whom you can influence to see to it, that not a perfunctory school is taught here, there, or elsewhere, in which an Indian gets a certain amount of book-knowledge and a certain amount of perfectly obvious and easy knowledge of the use of a hoe, or a plane, or of a hammer; but that his nature is actually taken hold of by a teacher who can show him what we mean by industrial education; that is to say, how he can make his living, how he must make his living, how he must become an economic entity, and economically independent. And by that guidance and that leading, if it be done wisely, the whole Indian problem will solve itself.

It is a sort of dramatic thought that just when we have come to apply the right principle to the training of backward people—just when every school is a workshop and every workshop is a school—it is just at the time the Indian must be trained into the new life of citizenship if we are to save him. These two lines of activity come together coincidentally, and very fortunately for us, and very fortunately for them.

An Outline of a Course of Study in Mathematics.

THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF MATHEMATICS OF THE CHICAGO PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION.

In formulating a suggestive outline for the progressive study of mathematics thru the twelve years of the public school course, the teacher should be considerate of the diverse future interests, as well as the varied conditions, of the pupils for whom the course is framed.

It has been the effort of those who submit this syllabus for study to recognize the limitations for this branch which a crowded curriculum imposes on the time-program of the school, to keep in view the interests of the student whose period of school life is limited to the few years of elementary training, to provide an adequate preparation for an appreciation and mastery of the higher and more complicated phases of the subject considered, and to bring the student into a tentative consciousness of the quantitative relations which the handiwork of nature and mankind has placed in his environment.

From the plethora of material which the term mathematics suggests, such selections have been made as are thought best to cover the field of the essential and practical, and to touch the points of interest that are common to the necessities of all classes of students.

The subject matter of the higher elementary grades has been selected and the sequence of topics arranged with a view to encouraging the constructive feature of mathematics. Many facts and principles that are usually approached thru processes of deductive reason-

ing in the more advanced stages of the child's education may consistently be introduced earlier in his school experience, if comparison of real objects, figures and dimensions is encouraged. Much that is practical in so-called "higher mathematics" may be easily taught by a little effort in the manual art.

In the absence of detail in outline, that degree of freedom in the selection of means and materials is conceded, which is consistent with the free play of individual preference. It is believed, however, that the concrete material for objectifying the number lessons in the lower grades should be selected from various sources, that the concept of the number fact may be supported by a broad perceptive foundation.

While the selection of concrete material may vary with the individual preference of principal or teacher, we recommend the limitation of the terminology of the mathematics of the elementary schools to that which is common usage in the current phrase of commercial life.

As the science of arithmetic has been evolved from conditions of necessity that man has met in his struggle for the mastery of his natural environment and for the establishment of the social order, so that method of presentation in the class-room will be most relevant, fruitful, and effective, which parallels and correlates itself with the actual daily experiences of the child.

The work in concrete geometry finds its justification in the training it gives to the eye, the hand, and the

brain; and in the direct bearing it has on the various callings of life. Whoever handles tools finds the need of a knowledge of geometric forms, and of the means of applying this knowledge to the work before him. Angles, triangles, rectangles, parallelograms, circles, cylinders, spheres, cones, pyramids, and frustums, are of the things he must measure; and the ruler, the square, the protractor, the compasses, and the T-square, are among the tools whose use he must master.

It is suggested that after the simpler work in angles shall have been done the class pass on to the easier work in triangles, thence to a brief study of parallelograms, etc., and then return, for fuller treatment, to the first topic. In this way the stronger classes may be able to compass the entire work outlined, and the weaker will get something from each topic.

The interest in the work will be greatly augmented by setting the pupils to finding illustrations of the propositions as they are discussed.

Course of Study.

FIRST GRADE.

I. A comparison of objects to develop the idea of qualitative relations:

- (a) Linear: Straight, curved, and broken.
- (b) Superficial: Square, triangle, oblong, and circle.
- (c) Solid: Prism, sphere, and cylinder.

II. The measuring and comparing of objects leading to the discovery of quantitative relations:

- (a) Of equal magnitudes.
- (b) Of unequal magnitudes. (Longer, shorter; larger, smaller, etc.)
- (c) Of simple commensurable magnitudes and quantities. (Twice, three, four, etc., times as large; one-half, one-third, one-fourth, etc., as large.)

III. (a) Development of the number concept, thru a variety of concrete illustrations.

(b) Drill on the number fact thus discovered, for accuracy and facility.

(c) Application of the number facts mastered, in the making and solving of problems.

IV. The combinations and separations of numbers to 12 concretely, embracing the four fundamental operations, and including the fractional forms, one-half, one-third, one-fourth, one-fifth, and one-sixth, within the limits suggested.

V. The writing and reading of numbers to 100.

SUGGESTIONS.

I. Material: Blocks, books, desks, splints, etc.

Measurements: The linear, square, and cubic inch, the foot rule; and the pint and quart measures, and the divisions of the week and month.

II. (a) With the edges of slates, books, window-panes, etc., show lines of equal length.

(b) With the pages of books, show equal surfaces.

(c) With the blocks, build equal solids.

III. Have cutting, folding, and making, contribute to the number concept as well as to manual dexterity.

IV. The mathematical language which is used in the first grade should be identical with that employed in the subsequent grades.

SECOND GRADE.

I. The development of the multiples of 10, within the limit 100.

II. The reading and writing of numbers to the limit 1,000.

III. The working out, by use of objects, illustrations, etc., the relations indicated by the fractions 1-2, 1-3, 2-3, etc., and their reciprocals, to and including the fraction 5-6.

IV. The mastery of the number facts in addition and subtraction, to and including 9 plus 9.

V. Thorough knowledge of the facts in the tables of multiplication and division, to and including 5 times 12.

VI. The addition of constants to, and the subtraction of constants from, series of numbers ending in the same digits.

VII. Written work in the addition and subtraction of numbers not exceeding three orders.

VIII. Written work in multiplication and division, within the limit suggested for the grade; the multiplier and the divisor limited to one digit.

IX. The application of the number facts within the limits suggested, in the making and solving of problems.

X. The reciprocal relations of the following (taught objectively): pint, quart, peck, and bushel; pint, quart, and gallon; inch, foot, and yard; minute, hour, day, week, and month; cent, dime, and dollar; ounce and pound.

SUGGESTIONS.

I. Make much of measurements, using the foot rule for linear and surface measure; the pint, quart, and gallon, for capacity; and the ounce and pound, for weight. Let the children do the measuring and weighing.

II. Teach incidentally the values of the Roman numerals I, V, and X, and the values resulting from their repetition and relative position.

III. Concrete problems should be drawn from the field of the child's interests and experiences.

IV. Build the tables of multiplication progressively, indicating the relation of the process to that of addition.

THIRD GRADE.

I. The notation and numeration of numbers to 1,000, using words and symbols.

II. The combination and separation of numbers within the limit 144.

III. The pairs of factors of all composite numbers from 4 to 60, inclusive.

IV. Partition,—embracing the fractional parts of numbers within the limit 144,—no denominator to exceed 12.

V. The addition and subtraction of numbers, not exceeding two periods.

VI. Multiplication,—the multiplier limited to two orders.

VII. Division: (a) By 10 and multiples of 10 to 100; (b) by numbers below 60, ending in 1, 2, or 3; (c) by other numbers, not exceeding 25.

VIII. The common measures: Dry, liquid, and long; United States' money; time, weight, and distance. All to be taught objectively.

IX. Simple reductions of denominate numbers.

X. Names and uses of the terms employed in the four fundamental operations.

XI. Problems to follow illustrative examples in every case.

SUGGESTIONS.

I. See suggestions I., III., and IV., under Second Grade.

II. Drill frequently in all the primary number facts of the fundamental operations, to secure accuracy and rapidity.

III. Call attention to the common features in the various tables of multiplication; the higher tables contain but few new facts.

IV. Let oral work precede the written, in all cases where a new feature is introduced. The process should be familiar before problems involving large numbers are attacked.

V. The child should be taught early to keep before him the three questions arising in the solution of every problem: (a) What facts are given? (b) What fact is required? (c) What is the process?

VI. Teach the properties of squares, rectangles, triangles, and circles, by constructing, cutting, folding, drawing, and comparing.

FOURTH GRADE.

I. Review the number facts, tables, and general abstract work of previous grades.

II. Oral work in pairs of factors and fractional parts of numbers, within the limit 150.

III. Compute the areas and dimensions of rectangles; and use the squares of numbers from 1 to 12, and the

square roots of numbers from 1 to 144, as applied to square areas.

IV. The divisibility of numbers by 2, 3, 4, 5, or 10.

V. Cancellation, limited to three numbers in either term.

VI. The reduction of compound numbers, excluding fractional terms, and involving not more than two reductions.

VII. The formulating and memorizing of the tables in compound numbers which were studied in previous grades.

VIII. The making, computing, and receipting of bills of from one to five items.

IX. The making and solving of many problems within the limits of the grade, and involving one, two, or three steps.

X. Limited work in the reduction, addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of fractions; no denominator to be greater than 16,—the work to be developed objectively.

SUGGESTIONS.

I. Habituate the pupils to expressing their work, both in problems and examples, as equations; and have them employ cancellation wherever possible.

II. Call for the construction of problems, with and without data given.

III. Develop in pupils the power of visualizing the numbers employed, thus reducing to the minimum the need of paper and pencil.

IV. As the child must learn thru his own activity, help him thru work which he can do, rather than thru the explanation of work which he cannot do.

FIFTH GRADE.

I. Definitions of the terms employed in the fundamental operations.

II. A brief review of the fourth grade work in fractions.

III. A treatment of L. C. M. and G. C. D., commensurate with the subsequent work in fractions.

IV. Exercises in the fundamental operations in common fractions, within practical limits.

V. The aliquot parts of numbers to 100.

VI. The areas of parallelograms and triangles, and the volumes of right prisms.

VII. A development of the subject of decimal frac-

tions, by means of the meter-stick or a ten-inch cube.

VIII. The decimal equivalents of the simpler common fractions and *vice versa*.

SUGGESTIONS.

I. Drill in the aliquot parts of a hundred should be so thoro that a fractional form or a decimal expression will immediately suggest its equivalent.

II. Denominate numbers furnish excellent material for examples and problems in many of the subjects of this grade.

III. The process of division in fractions is greatly simplified by multiplying both dividend and divisor by the L. C. M. of the denominators.

SIXTH GRADE.

I. A review of the work in fractions, as developed in the fifth grade.

II. Exercises in the fundamental operations in decimal fractions, within practical limits.

III. Denominate numbers: Tables and reductions; practical examples and problems.

IV. The table of miscellaneous units in common use.

V. The metric system of weights and measures, taught without reference to any other system.

VI. The units of monetary values of important foreign countries, with equivalents in United States money.

VII. The divisibility of numbers by 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 9, and 10.

VIII. Percentage, involving the three principal terms.

IX. Interest, with integral rate, and time limited to years and months.

SUGGESTIONS.

I. Call attention to the relation of each new subject to the subjects preceding; the pupils should see in percentage only a modified form in fractions.

II. Do not consider commercial transactions as the only field for the application of percentage.

III. Continue drill in the fractional equivalents of the common rates of interest, discount, etc., until recognition is automatic.

IV. When the pupil realizes that percentage is only a modified form of fractions whose denominator is a constant (100), he feels himself more at home in the subject.

Keep close to the observations and experiences of the children in the work of this grade.

(To be continued.)

Teaching English to Foreigners in Evening Schools. II.

By Dist. Supt. Gustave Straubenmüller, New York City.

SYMBOLIC GRAMMAR.

Grammar is studied practically and under three headings: 1. The study of the verb. 2. The study of the sentence. 3. The study of the moods and their expression. This study is taken up immediately.

The study of a verb is somewhat after this fashion: A verb is first conjugated in the usual manner—I walk, thou walkest, etc. In the second exercise it is conjugated with its subjects and its complements. In the third exercise the whole series is put into the second or third person. There is certainly no abstraction here. The conjugations are treated in a novel way. Gouin's chapter on the confusion of the tense and the act is worthy of serious study.

Reading is continuous with the system, and spelling is practiced in copying sentences from the board and in writing them from memory. A method of studying literature has also been devised by him.

The Germans do not adopt the system in its entirety. They approve of the prominence given to the verb, and praise the many ingenious grammatical devices. The principle of grouping and the series of actions are thoroly recognized in Germany and adopted.

FUNDAMENTAL PROPOSITIONS OF THE SYSTEM.

(According to Mr. Stead's review of Gouin's Book.)

1. Proposition.—That a child learns in series of sentences not by words.

2. Proposition.—That the child's attention is centered on verb, for the verb is the soul of the sentence.

3. Proposition.—The child, in order to remember a series of sentences, pictures the action in his mind in consecutive order according to succession in time.

OBJECTIONS TO THE "PSYCHOLOGICAL" METHOD.

The objections to this method as applied to our evening schools are:

1. The teacher must have knowledge of mother tongue of pupils.

2. The pupils in a class must understand one language in common.

3. The series must be prepared for the teacher, as we cannot expect all teachers to prepare a series such as is required by Mr. Gouin.

4. It assumes that the pupil has a reading knowledge of his mother tongue, and has, therefore, some degree of education. We have many illiterate foreigners.

5. Its treatment of pronunciation is decidedly unsatisfactory, according to the report of the Committee of Twelve.

6. There are objections to absolute rejection of pictures and objects in the Gouin method which appeals almost exclusively to the pupil's imagination.

In the Gouin system, great stress is laid on the importance of not "changing the picture" in the objective part of a lesson, altho it should often be changed in

dealing with the subjective language. In other words, if you describe one house, describe it, and do not permit details of other houses to enter.

IV.—The "New" Method.

The "Phonetic" Method here spoken of as the "new" method is based on W. Vietor's revolutionary pamphlet, *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren*. The method is analytic, direct, and imitative. Reading lessons are the center of the whole teaching; they are broken up to furnish material for conversation, composition, and grammar. The foreign tongue is used to express directly "the precepts, images, and concepts presented to the pupil's mind." Pronunciation is made a very prominent feature. It gives a very thoro training to the ear and vocal organs. Printed texts in phonetic notation are used; objects, pictures, and maps are used; compositions are written quite early in the course; systematic grammar is taken up late in the course, and translations come last of all. This system, with some modifications, is used largely in Germany and France.

The report of the Committee of Twelve says that this method is more successful than any other in forming a good pronunciation and in giving pupils a ready and accurate control of the spoken language; that its advocates are men of sound scholarship, successful experience, and good standing in the educational world. The report furthermore says that the phonetic method resembles the "natural" and the "psychological" schools in that it takes the modern spoken language as a basis and at first relies mainly on oral instruction, using, as far as possible, the foreign language itself as a medium of communication; it is very systematically constructed and its beginning is strictly scientific; the pupils are thoroly trained in the vowels and consonants of the new language; the ordinary spelling is carefully kept from the pupils during the elementary period. This method requires special preparation and a special apparatus.

The following is a lesson witnessed by Miss Brebner in a German school; the pupils had had fourteen weeks of instruction:

As the teacher entered the room he said to the boys, "Sit down." They did so, saying, "We sit, We are sitting." Then, without another word, the director went to his desk on the platform, and by simply looking at different boys, got the following statement of his actions:

You are standing on the platform.
You are going to your desk.
You are sitting.
You are taking your pen.
You are writing your name.
You are putting the pen on the table.
You are taking the blotting-paper.
You are putting the blotting-paper in the class-book.
You are rising.
You are leaving your place.

Then a boy was called up and told to go to the door. He did so, saying, "I am going to the door," and different sections of the class said to the boy, "You are going to the door," and of him, "He is going to the door." The same procedure was followed when the teacher said:

Open the door.
Shut the door.
Leave the room.
What have you done?
Go to your place.
Go to the bookcase.
Open the bookcase.

After saying to the boy, "Take this book and put it in the bookcase," the teacher kept the book in his hand, so that the pupil had to say, "Please give me the book." Then the teacher asked:

What are you going to do?
What are you doing now?
What have you just done?

As before, not only did the pupil himself answer each question correctly, but others said to him and of him, what he was going to do, what he was actually doing, and what he had just done.

After another boy had been called up and made to perform various actions in the same way, two other boys were told to rise and walk round the room, sometimes at the same gait, sometimes the one more quickly than the other. "You must first see it," said Director Walter to the boys, "and then speak about it." The talk took the form of the following sentences, which were duly practiced:

You are walking more quickly than your friend.
You are not walking so quickly as your friend.
You are walking as quickly as your friend.

Then the two boys were told to place themselves, respectively, before and behind the teacher, suiting, as usual, word to action. Then the teacher asked the class the following questions:

Who is standing in the middle?
Who is standing before me?
Who is standing behind me?

Then two boys of unequal height were placed side by side, and the other pupils, in answer to the teacher's questions, said:

Smith is taller than Jones.
Jones is not so tall as Smith.

Again the different persons of the verb were appropriately used:

I am not so tall as Smith.
You are not so tall as Smith.
He is not so tall as Smith.
I am taller than my friends.
You are taller than your friends.
He is taller than his friends.

Then proverbs were repeated; difficult words in these were carefully practiced, and phonetically spelled from Vietor's *Lauttafel*. When a boy made a mistake, no one was allowed to say what mistake he had made; he had to show on the sound chart, first, the sound he had given, then the sound he ought to have given, carefully repeating the right sound. None ever repeated the wrong pronunciation, but only gave the right form, which was repeated by the pupil who had made the mistake.

Now, a third boy was called out, of the same height as the shorter of the two. Thereupon the following remarks were made by the three boys and repeated, with appropriate changes of person, by their comrades:

I am taller than my friends.
I am not so tall as my friend Schmidt.
I am as tall as my friend Schultz.
I am as tall as my friend Fechner.
I am smaller than my friend Schmidt.

Now the class repeated the poem, "Work, while you work; play, while you play." This was discussed.

When a boy was sent to the blackboard, he described what he was doing:

I am standing.
I am leaving my place.
I am going to the blackboard.
I am cleaning the blackboard.

Then they sang English songs in class-room, "God Save the Queen," "Home, Sweet Home," "Our Home is on the Ocean."

Reading.—First the teacher always reads a new passage to the boys, who listen with their books closed; he then asks them questions on what he has read; explains new words; he then gets the boys to give him the substance of the passage in German; then he reads again before telling any of the class to read—this during the first year only. Answers in sentences are insisted upon. Grammar is taught, but not systematically, until there is a certain amount of language knowledge to work upon. No separate grammar lessons are given in the earlier stages. Less grammar is taught, but it is taught inductively. Great attention is given to *verb practice*.

Dictation.—At first from passages already learned. Much help, however, is given in preparation for written work. Instead of translation into a foreign tongue they have free *composition*.

OBJECTIONS TO "NEW" OR "PHONETIC" METHOD.

1. Special preparation is necessary.
2. Special apparatus is necessary.
3. An attempt to teach phonetic notation is questionable, because of lack of time in our evening schools.
4. The teacher must have knowledge of mother tongue of pupil.
5. Pupils in a class must understand one language in common.
6. It assumes that the pupil has a reading knowledge of his mother tongue, and has, therefore, some degree of education. We have many illiterates in our evening schools.
7. Could a teacher get shy, awkward adults of the class who attend evening school to perform these actions in illustrating the language work?

(To be continued.)

The School Journal,

NEW YORK, CHICAGO, AND BOSTON.

WEEK ENDING MAY 14, 1904.

America's Faith in Education.

The report of the Mosely Educational Commission is very emphatic in its praises of the intense honesty of our national belief in the universal education of all the people. The fruit of the practical phases of this belief is found in the growing importance of American industry and commerce in the world's affairs. The commission agrees that "altho in the past the belief in education has been the effect rather than the cause of American prosperity, during the last quarter of a century education has had a powerful and far-reaching influence; and it cannot be doubted that in the future it will become more and more the cause of industrial and commercial progress and of national well-being." While all this is true, it would seem that the commission as a whole has missed one most important point in not sufficiently recognizing the expression of American ideals in the common schools. The common school idea is a distinct and uniquely characteristic American contribution to civilization. Originally the child of national aspirations this institution is in its development becoming more and more a great culture force for expanding the social and industrial usefulness of every individual unit of our democracy to its highest possible degree. If the Mosely Commission could have realized the philosophic greatness of this idea it might have rendered even more valuable service to Anglo-Saxondom. This idea furnishes the key to whatever our national life reveals of educational enthusiasm and pre-eminence in industry and commerce.

America is a land of practical action rather than of theorization. American philosophy is not to be found in books, it is incarnated in forms of life and is visible only to the seeing eye in institutions and the historic trend of popular movements. To understand it one must live it. Aristocratic notions, however mild their symptoms, disqualify a foreigner, whether he be native or alien by birth, from forming an accurate estimate of its effects in lines of human endeavor. The common school is the purest expression of American aspirations. The practical realization of its logical development reveals the irresistible force of the underlying popular ideal.

The common school thought is yet in its infancy, especially in the East. Out West its vigorous development is revealing more clearly its trend in practical phases. But East and West and North and South, everywhere the national hopes embodied in that institution are making themselves felt with steadily growing intensity. Visions of what the common school might, and some day will be, are enlisting the best thought in the country in the working out of its possibilities. If Europe could see the true inwardness of the thought at the foundation of this institution, it would understand our faith and would recognize the secret of our industrial progress.

There are no common schools in Great Britain. There are schools for the people, but no schools of the people. The "masses" have schools graciously provided for their children. A charitable attitude has established these schools, tutelary care maintains them. The purpose is

negative rather than constructive. The country must be protected from ignorance. Illiteracy is considered an evil that must be stamped out. Crime and vice must be suppressed. The children of the masses must be taught to become self-supporting lest they be poor and steal. The tax-supported elementary schools, like the prisons, are supported by Great Britain chiefly as agencies for self-protection. With us in America the common schools are by the people looked upon as the most profitable investment of their taxes. The father who sends his child to school is not made to feel that the State is very kind to him in supplying educational opportunities. On the contrary the people, and that means Americans without class distinction, have learned to recognize that the State's resources are developed by education, and that every educated individual is an important addition to the wealth of the State. The schools are given full scope to develop the capacities of the individual pupils to the fullest possible extent. The better educated a man, the greater service he will render the State. This is the American creed. Accordingly a father who sends a child to school is contributing to the wealth of the State. He who has no child to send, has learned to pay his share of the school taxes without grumbling and without any particular feeling of being virtuous in doing so. In sooth the people are awaking to the notion that he ought really to be taxed more heavily, not having a child to present to the State. The common schools are the hope of America in a unique sense. The full significance of this hope is difficult to comprehend, except for one who is an American at heart.

Great Problems of the Century.

The Rev. Dr. E. P. Powell who has valiantly fought, for many years, to win victories for the industrial idea in education, writes this with reference to the place which school problems occupy among the great questions of the century!

Are you aware that the great problems of the twentieth century bid fair to be school problems? We are just beginning to find out that, while education makes a people, it must be a good education to make a strong and vital people. Our own system has been a fetish to be worshipped. Our educators are just waking up to the fact that education is still in the primitive stages. We shall some of us live to see the effort to make gentlemen give way to an effort to make citizens; the effort to create professionals give way to the effort to make bread-winners. Industrialism is invading our school system, and is even taking possession of our universities. The chief trouble now is to get it into our primary and secondary schools. Two or three of the states are preparing their Normal school pupils on a new plan. These candidates for teachers certificates are compelled to study a part of the time out of doors, with note book and pencil, as well as spading fork and hoe. They are thus enabled to go to our schools and interest the children in animal and plant life, in gardening and in orcharding, as well as general farming. The next step, and that is already inaugurated, is to place our school buildings in the middle of large acres and give the children book study indoors in the morning and out of doors in the afternoon; bringing them into direct contact with nature to apply what they learn in the morning. Those who wish to follow this evolution of industrialism in education will do well to take THE SCHOOL JOURNAL, published in New York and Chicago.

Education and Success.

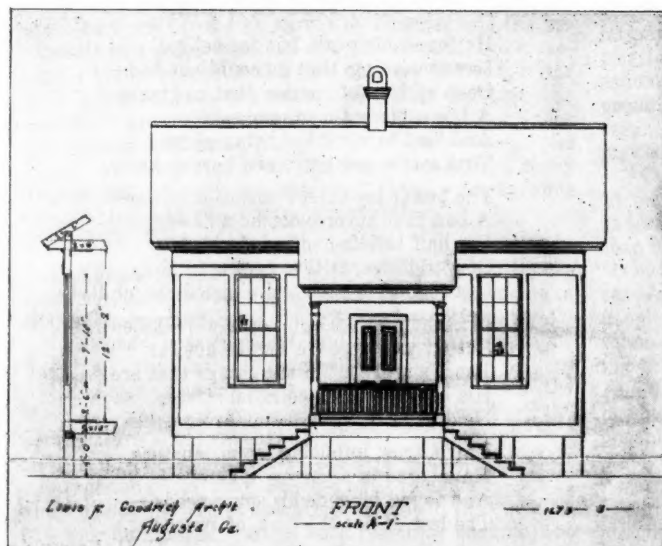
In the annual report of United States Commissioner W. T. Harris will appear statistics intended to show the effect of higher education on success in life. The figures emphasize particularly the pre-eminence of the A. B. degree among the successful, and the inconspicuousness of the self-educated. The standard of success has been the most notable persons in all departments of usefulness and reputable endeavor. The bureau of education divides the 14,794,403 males over thirty years old in the United States into four educational classes as follows:

Class I., without education	1,757,023
Class II., with only common school training or trained outside of organized schools	12,054,335
Class III., with regular high school training added	657,432
Class IV., with college or higher education added	325,613

Of the 10,704 persons who have passed the tests of notability, there are none without education; twenty-four were self-taught; 278 were home-taught; 1,066 have common school training only; 1,627 have high school training; 7,709 have college training, and of this number 6,129 were graduates.

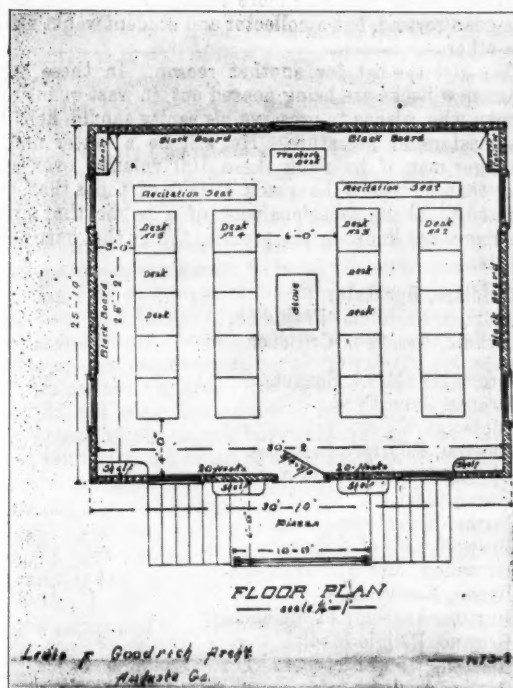
As a result of these figures the experts of the bureau conclude that from 1800 to 1870 the uneducated boy in the United States failed entirely to become notable in any department of usefulness or reputable endeavor. Only twenty-four self-taught men succeeded. A boy with only a common school education had, in round numbers, only one chance in 9,000 of success. A boy with a high school training increased his chances twenty-two times. College education added gave the young man about ten times the chance of a high school boy and 200 times the chance of the boy whose training stopped with the common school. The A. B. graduate was pre-eminently successful and the self-educated man was inconspicuous.

"From the nature of the case," says the report, "it cannot be claimed that these classifications are exact, but they are based upon the fullest statistics ever obtained, and the necessary estimates have been made by government experts. It is also doubtless true that other circumstances contributed to the success of these trained men, but after all reasonable allowances are made the figures force the conclusion that the more school training the American boy of that period had the greater his chances of distinction. It is unnecessary to extend this inquiry to woman. Education is practically her only door to eminence."



An Inexpensive Rural School.

In many parts of the country the extension of educational work depends upon the construction of a school building for between \$200 and \$300. In other localities log schools and old frame structures are still in use because the districts are too poor to expend any considerable sum for a habitable building. To meet the demands



of such places and to furnish at the same time a hygienic, well-ventilated, and well-lighted school, Supt. Lawton B. Evans, of Richmond county and Augusta, Ga., has had the plans shown in the accompanying illustrations prepared. A number of buildings constructed from these designs are already in use in the South.

The plans call for a building 25 feet 10 inches by 30 feet 10 inches. This will afford accommodations for twenty pupils. Suitable blackboards, rooms for garments, and platforms are provided. The stove is so arranged as to give abundant heat to all parts of the room and at the same time give good ventilation. Plenty of room is provided for hearing classes and carrying out the different school exercises. The outside appearance of the building is plain but not dispiriting. The cost of the whole building ready for use should be approximately \$250.

Dr. Douglas has been elected president of the High School Teachers' Association of New York city. There were three candidates in the field. But Dr. Douglas had nearly two-thirds of all the votes cast. His sincerity and disinterested devotion to high school interests have long been appreciated in unofficial circles. He has the confidence of his confreres to a rare degree.

Among the good things which have to be deferred to next week is a letter by a prominent Philadelphia school man describing present educational endeavors in the City of Brotherly Love.

Prof. John Dewey, head of the department of philosophy of the University of Chicago, has accepted the newly created chair of philosophy at Columbia university.

Famous Books.

In reply to inquiries we give Prof. Geo. E. Woodberry's list of 100 books famous in English literature. We do not mean by offering this that they comprise the greatest English books, or that it is a list a reader should certainly attempt to own and read; for example, he gives the "first edition of the Book of Common Prayer"; an ordinary reader would be more edified by the book as it has been revised, but a collector and student would value the other.

We give the list for another reason. In these days when new books are being poured out in vast quantities a man who wishes to preserve his sanity should hold to the masters of literature. He will be a better and a stronger man if he reads these 100 volumes over and over than he will if he reads 10,000 of those that are printed to fill the capacious maw of a public that cries for more, not knowing the precious things that have been written.

Addison, Spectator.
Austen, *Pride and Prejudice*.
Arnold, *Essays in Criticism*.

Browning (Mrs.), *Sonnets*.
Bronte, *Jane Eyre*.
Bible.
Bunyan, *Pilgrim's Progress*.
Blackstone, *Commentaries*.
Burns, *Poems*.
Burke, *Reflections*.
Boswell, *Life of Johnson*.
Browning, *Men and Women*.
Bacon, *Essays*.
Burton, *Anatomy of Melancholy*.
Browne, *Religio Medici*.
Beaumont and Fletcher.
Butler, *Analogy*.
Byron, *Childe Harold*.
Butler, *Hudibras*.

Chapman, *Homer*.
Congreve, *Way of the World*.
Clarendon, *History*.
Collins, *Odes*.
Cowper, *The Task*.
Coleridge, *Christabel*.
Cooper, *The Mohicans*.
Carlyle, *Sartor Resartus*.

Donne, *Poems*.
De Foe, *Robinson Crusoe*.
Dickens, *Pickwick Papers*.
Dryden, *Absalom and Achitophel*.
Darwin, *Origin of Species*.

Emerson, *Nature*.
Eliot, *Adam Bede*.

Ford, *The Broken Heart*.
Franklin, *Almanac*.
Fielding, *Tom Jones*.
Fitzgerald, *Omar Khayyam*.

Gray, *The Elegy*.
Goldsmith, *Vicar of Wakefield*.
Gower, *Confession*.
Gibbon, *Decline and Fall*.

Hawthorne, *Scarlet Letter*.
Herrick, *Hesperides*.
Herbert, *Temple*.
Holinshed, *Chronicles*.
Hakluyt, *Voyages*.

Irving, *Knickerbocker's History*.

Johnson, *Dictionary*.
Jonson, *Works*.

Keats, *Lamia*.

Lylie, *Euphues*.
Langlande, *Piers Plowman*.
Lamb, *Elia*.
Landor, *Pericles and Aspasia*.
Locke, *Human Understanding*.
Longfellow, *Evangeline*.
Lowell, *Biglow Papers*.

Malory, *King Arthur*.
Massinger, *New Way to Pay Old Debts*.
Marlowe, *Jew of Malta*.
Milton, *Paradise Lost*.
Macaulay, *History*.
Motley, *Dutch Republic*.

Newman, *Apologias*.
Pope, *Essay on Man*.
Poe, *The Raven*.
Pepys, *Diary*.
Prescott, *Peru*.
Percy, *Reliques*.
Paine, *Rights of Man*.

Ruskin, *Stones of Venice*.
Richardson, *Clarissa*.

Scott, *Ivanhoe*.
Stowe, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*.
Sterne, *Sentimental Journey*.
Smollett, *Humphrey Clinker*.
Smith, *Wealth of Nations*.
Sheridan, *School for Scandal*.
Shelley, *Adonais*.
Smith, *Wealth of Nations*.
Surrey, *Songs and Sonnets*.
Sackville, *Ferrex and Porrex*.
Spenser, *Faerie Queen*.
Shakespeare, *Plays*.
Steele, *Isaac Bickerstaff*.
Swift, *Gulliver's Travels*.

Tennyson, *In Memoriam*.
Thackeray, *Vanity Fair*.
Taylor, *Holy Living*.

Whittier, *Snow Bound*.
Wordsworth, *Lyrical Ballads*.
Webster, *Duchess of Malfy*.
Waller, *Works*.
Walton, *Complete Angler*.
White, *Natural History*.

The Federalist.
Book of Common Prayer, First Edition.
Mirror for Magistrates.

The Good in Work.

He found his work, but far behind
Lay something that he could not find—
Deep springs of passion that can make
A life sublime for others' sake.
And lend to work the living glow
That saints and bards and heroes know.

The power lay there—unfolded power—
A bud that never bloomed a flower;
For half beliefs and jaded moods
Of worldlings, critics, cynics, prudes,
Lay round his path and dimmed and chilled
Illusions past. High hopes were killed;
But duty lived. He sought not far
The "might be" in the things that are;
His ear caught no celestial strain,
He dreamt of no millennial reign.

Brave, true, unhoping, calm, austere,
He labored in a narrow sphere,
And found in work his spirit-needs—
The last, if not the best, of creeds.

—W. E. H. LECKY.

Ventilation in Rural Schools.

The fact that a simple, small, one-room rural school can be well and scientifically ventilated is too little understood in most localities. Minnesota has recognized the necessity of good ventilation in all schools, rural as well as urban, and has passed a law that in order to receive state aid a district must maintain a certain standard of equipment and sanitation. As the state aid is \$125 the districts are ready to provide needed improvements.

Supt. Fanny G. Gies, of Mower county, recently issued a circular full of valuable suggestions. It reads:

In addition to the present requirements for state aid, these new points have been added. First, each school must be supplied with at least one set of supplementary readers. Second, the school-room must be properly heated and ventilated. Ventilation merely by doors and windows will not be considered adequate. To assist in carrying out the second requirement I make the following suggestions:

Place the stove in one corner of the room where it will be least in the way, preferably in a corner of the end opposite the chimney. Surround the stove with a circular sheet iron jacket large enough so that there will be about ten inches space between the stove and the jacket. Have the jacket made about six feet high and extending completely to the floor where it should be securely fastened. There should be a large door in front of the jacket so that the fire can be easily taken care of and the ashes removed. A small door or slide about 4 x 10 inches in each side of the jacket just above the floor would aid in drawing the cold air from the floor when necessary.

Two iron registers are necessary: one placed under the stove, the other in the chimney. Cut a hole in the floor about 10 x 14 inches for one of the registers. Underneath this there should be a wooden box about 10 x 10 inches wide and long enough to reach from the register to the outside of the foundations. Cover the outer end of the box with a coarse wire screen to keep out small animals. The second register should go into the chimney about four inches from this floor. If the register is placed near the ceiling it will carry out the warm fresh air instead of the impure air. The chimney should extend down to the floor. If you are building a new chimney or rebuilding an old one, a double flue should be constructed with a single layer of bricks in the partition between the flues, so that the flue carrying out the smoke and hot air from the stove may warm the flue for impure air, which is necessary in order to establish good ventilation. The smoke flue may be a little larger than the other flue.

If you have a single flue chimney in which the flue is sufficiently large, the pipe carrying the smoke from the stove may be carried up thru the chimney and the impure air be carried out thru the flue around the stove-pipe. However, the double flue chimney is much better as it is less liable to get out of order. By this plan the cold fresh air coming thru the register in the floor under the stove is heated and rising between the stove and the jacket is distributed over the room, forcing the heavy impure air out thru the register in the chimney, thus establishing a simple system of ventilation.

Directions for Teachers.

The fire should be started about eight o'clock in the morning. Leave both registers closed and the doors in the jacket open until the room is comfortably warm.

Now open both registers and close the doors in the jacket and the room will be ventilated.

Hang your thermometer about four feet from the floor and not near an outside door. Try to keep the temperature about seventy degrees.

If at any time the air next the floor seems cold, close the register under the stove and open the small doors in the sides of the jacket and the cold air will be drawn off the floor and heated. Close both registers each day before leaving the school building.

Letters.

Need of Cleaner Schools.

In THE SCHOOL JOURNAL for April 2, the first article, on the "Subconscious Effect of the School-Room," is surely sympathetic, sound, practically valuable. Happening to read it at the end of a day spent "visiting" primary school-rooms in a section of the city comparatively open and clean and in one of the fine buildings, I reflected that while these rooms were an improvement in finish and decoration over those in many other buildings, I had here felt keenly the need of more taste and cheerfulness.

But probably this made less impression than it would have done had not another matter, even more powerful in subconscious effects, distressed my mind, as—I fear I must say—it always does when I enter a public school,—a matter not mentioned in Mr. Curtis's article, and one that I have never known to be an object of criticism in print. This is simply dirtiness—of floors, woodwork, windows, furniture,—of the window-seats and window-boxes and plants (usually half or wholly dead), of every ledge upon which dust can rest. The shame and squalor of dirt are everywhere. How the teachers can endure it I do not see. Sometimes I ask them;—ladies with high ideals of cleanliness have said, among other things, that the hurry and crush of each day's occupations prevented any labor from them in this direction; and, apparently they are helpless to reach those who are employed to do the cleaning. No teacher has ever said to me, "I have a clean room;"—the contrary seems to be invariably the accepted fact.

When I look at the forty-eight children in each of these rooms and see what is plain to be seen of the vital need for a higher ideal of cleanliness to be working its way into the helpless child character—now so open and ready for influence; when I think of what this alone would do for their lives,—the pity of all this dirt in their school seems heavy indeed! Of all places, one would think that school ought to be and could be reasonably clean instead of dirty beyond excuse.

As THE JOURNAL's good article says, the room itself acts upon the pupil; "the school-room, during all its years, is an influence for less or for more, for better or for worse, on every child who sits behind its desks." For these primary children, at whom I have been looking lately (speculating at times as to how many of them have homes as dirty as their school-room), I suppose that no most difficult, most modern school condition could do more than would be done by scrupulous cleanliness, fresh each morning, in these buildings. All the talk and effort over clean lesson papers, drawings, etc., given devotedly in the teachers' dirty precincts, must be largely thrown away, as far as showing children the blessings and duty of cleanliness is concerned; the school-room is too strong an influence "for worse." Especially as (in these children's thoughts) the home of teachers and of education, how do we tolerate its teachings?

"Colors are more important than pictures," your writer says; and, doubtless, he would say that washed and swept and dusted surfaces are more important, far, than colors.

On another page of this same number of THE JOURNAL for April 2, is a letter which advances "reasons why people patronize private schools in preference to public schools"—"the main reason [being] the opinion or feeling that the common schools are too 'common,'" etc. And now I'm wondering if nearly as many are influenced by that pure silliness as by fear of diseases coming from unsanitary conditions in public schools,—a doubt founded partly on definite recollections of anxieties expressed by "worried-to-pieces" mothers, and of their descriptions of sights in buildings to which they had sent or were planning to send a child.

We cannot expect more work or care from teachers,

principals, superintendents; but perhaps there should be readjustment of kinds of care—some omissions, abolitions, to make room for fundamentals. Somewhere—or all thru—there is, in this matter of dirty buildings, a mistake and one of dreadful seriousness.

We are beginning to worry, really, over providing moral instruction—might it not be a good first step to make sure that school buildings shall be cleaner—very much cleaner?

P.

Too Early for Felicitation.

Upon various occasions during the past year I have published articles and given addresses at teachers' institutes and conventions regarding the all-important salary question. Upon several of these occasions, my statistics regarding the wealth of the nation have been challenged from two points of view. The first objection has been that the wealth of the United States has no bearing whatever upon the salary question. The second objection was that I have greatly overestimated the wealth of the United States. I desire to answer specifically both of these objections if you are willing to grant me space in your columns. I know no other medium by which I can get the facts so generally before the teachers of the country.

Free public education depends upon the wealth and the intelligence of the American people. Obviously, it is at present a most important factor in the creation of both wealth and intelligence. Such education is a dependent creature of the state. If the state is rich, it can afford to support free public education well; if the state is poor, it must necessarily be parsimonious in its dealings with the schools. The first point in all my arguments both written and spoken has been that the amount of wealth apportioned to schools by the nation as a whole reflects rather the average poverty of the citizens than the total wealth of the nation as a whole. I find frequently by challenge from audiences that the average per capita wealth of the American citizen is entirely unknown to most people, including educators who have no legitimate excuse for being ignorant of the facts. To be specific, I find that, frequently, educated men think that five hundred and forty dollars is the average income of the American citizen, when as a matter of fact it is the average income of the workingman, and by no means represents the average income of the workingman's family. Every statistician knows that of the value of the workingman's product he receives on the average for the whole nation not over twenty per cent.

As far as I am able to gather from statistics furnished me from many sources, it seems that an estimate of \$90,000,000,000 as the total wealth of the United States is reasonable. Also, it would appear that there are about 15,000,000 families in the United States. From this it would appear that the average amount of the property of the American family, North, South, East, and West, rich and poor, white and black, is about \$6,000. The second point that I have made and intend to make is that the average property of families engaged in the work of education is so far below this average as to cast serious discredit upon our boasting that we are doing a great deal for free public education.

To carry forward some of these figures, let me call the attention of my readers to the fact that the retail sale of alcoholic liquors in this country estimated by *The American Grocer* last year was \$1,450,000,000, while the total expenditure for free public education was \$225,000,000. The serious error made by most educators, and I include among these certain distinguished college presidents who have been especially extravagant in their boasting, has been that they have failed to take into consideration the ratios. For example, in this respect we spend six times as much for alcoholic drinks as we do for all forms of free public education.

It is much more difficult to estimate the total income of the American people than it is to arrive at a fairly

just estimate of the total wealth. But as far as I can find by study of the statistics of the great economists, I am of the opinion that the total business done by the American people last year gave us an income of about \$95,000,000,000. Further, it would appear that we have been saving for the past ten years an average of nearly \$3,000,000,000 a year. In short, it would appear that we are growing richer far faster than we are growing generous in our expenditures in free public education.

My main purpose in writing this letter is to persuade intelligent, ambitious, farsighted and independent educators to study this question and to determine for themselves whether it is just to felicitate this nation upon an expenditure of \$275,000,000 for all forms of education, public and private, at a time when we are spending over \$1,000,000,000 annually for patent medicines, and fully \$700,000,000 for tobacco in all its retail forms.

One of the troubles seems to be that the teacher's income in a country town does fairly reflect the average wealth of the people there, while the teacher's income in cities is simply absurd in comparison with the average wealth of the people of the cities. To illustrate:—I notice that in one country town where the teachers are receiving \$350 a year the per capita wealth per school child is but \$300, whereas in a certain city that I have in mind the per capita wealth per child is \$4,000, while the average teacher receives the magnificent salary of \$580. I notice with a painful sense of the absurdity of the matter, that many school principals advertise their salaries as high. It would be easy for me as a statistician to show that the most successful five hundred barbers or grocers, or dry goods dealers, or lawyers, or ministers, or bankers in the city of New York, receive incomes that make the New York principal's salary very small indeed by comparison.

It is not a time for felicitation. The average cost of the necessities of life in the past ten years has increased 45 per cent. while the teachers' salaries thruout the country have moved not over 15 per cent. On the contrary, it is a time when persons that are really interested in the welfare of the profession as a means by which the welfare of the nation may be promoted, ought to bestir themselves. Not so much in public agitation as in getting for themselves competent statistical knowledge.

WILLIAM E. CHANCELLOR.

Bloomfield, N. J.

I regard THE SCHOOL JOURNAL as a necessary part of my equipment as a superintendent, and I recommend your various publications to my teachers. I have been much interested in the articles by Dr. McAndrew. I am sure they have done much to help on the salary movement.

West Virginia.

JOSEPH ROSIER.

Pimples, blotches and other spring troubles are cured by Hood's Sarsaparilla—the most effective of all spring medicines.

THE SCHOOL JOURNAL.

NEW YORK, CHICAGO, and BOSTON.

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Manual Training Schedule. XVIII.

By Dr. James P. Haney, Director of Manual Training, New York City.

Grades 7B.—Boys.

Total time per week 90 minutes, to be divided into two periods of appropriate length, for lessons in object drawing, working drawing, structural and applied design.

Working Drawing.—Develop and emphasize the purpose of working drawings. Aim to secure clear and well placed free-hand sketches, followed by accurate and mechanical drawings, carefully lettered and dimensioned. Insist on neatness in execution.

Structural Design.—Aim to develop law of fitness to purpose, i. e., that use determines form and material, and that desire for strength and beauty determines proportions.

(Two lessons each week.)

1. Working Drawing: (free-hand—3rd angle—3 views) from model furnished by shop instructor, or from paper holder or other model furnished by special teacher. Extension, dimension lines, etc., indicated. Use hard pencils. Study of model to develop principles of constructed design (fitness of model to purpose; beauty in proportion; proper relation of parts), with a view to the making by each pupil of a model showing original dimensions.

2. Each pupil will plan, within given limitations, original proportions for his model. The dimensions planned may be marked upon the free-hand working drawing made last lesson. If necessary, a new free-hand drawing will be made and dimensioned. Vertical dimensions should be turned to read from bottom of page toward top.

3. Plan original modification in outline of model dimensioned last lesson. Make several sketches.

4. Each pupil will draw, full size, such part of the model as is modified in outline. This drawing is to be followed in shop or class-room in the construction of the original form.

5. Working drawing (mechanical) of original model from free-hand working drawing. Position of views on paper decided upon by each pupil.

6. Continue working drawing of original model. Three views drawn, showing parts of original model without modified outline.

7. Continue working drawing. Make careful drawing of parts showing modified outline. Cut these out to use as templates in completing working drawing.

8. Practice in free-hand printing and numbering. Practice also printing name of pupil and title of drawing.

9. Complete working drawing. Trace parts showing modified outlines. Dimension and letter drawings.

Design—In applied design aim to develop knowledge: of balance—equalized weights or consistency of attractions, rhythm—continuous or related movement, and harmony—consistency or relationship of masses. Emphasize the proper relation of the decorating mass to the space decorated, and the refinement of the elements of the mass.

(Two lessons each week.)

10. Original design for constructed form: make sketches, conventionalized unit from leaf and flower.

11. Continue with sketches for design.

12. Continue with sketches for design.

13. Complete design for constructed form.

14. Make two tracings on paper of design for constructed form. One of these is to be painted, the other to be used in tracing design on constructed form.

15. Practice painting flat washes of colors, suitable for staining wood, as illustrated on color chart. Paint background of design.

16. Practice painting units for design in colors showing harmonious relations with background color.

17. Complete painting design.

Object Drawing.—Aim to secure individual work in

drawing vegetable, leaf forms, and familiar objects singly and in simple groups. Emphasize correct foreshortening. Require careful pencil tests to determine proportions and directions. Use class models. In all drawings emphasize quality of line expressive of texture.

(Two lessons each week.)

18. Draw prism, horizontal and turned. Make several quick sketches of the model turned in different positions, or picture study: The "Sower"—Millet.

19. Draw square prism, horizontal and turned.

20. Draw large book, horizontal and turned.

21. Test Drawing.—Large book or box horizontal and turned. Development of lesson to precede drawing.

22. Draw group, cylinder standing and square prism, horizontal and turned, or picture study: "Mona Lisa"—Da Vinci.

23. Sketch group, as cereal box standing and turned, and water cup on side; or book partly open, standing on long edges, turned, like tri-prism, on top of book horizontal and turned. Note size and placing. General and relative proportions and position of objects. Sketch whole group lightly.

24. Complete drawing of group, sketched 23rd lesson. Group placed in position and studied. Errors in proportion and appearance corrected. Drawings completed with attention to rendering.

25. Draw foreshortened vegetable, or cone, on side, base visible, or picture study: "The Temeraire"—Turner.

26. Draw cone on side, turned.

27. Sketch group, flower pot standing and one on side, turned, or cylinder standing and one on side turned.

28. Sketch group, cylindrical object standing and conical object, horizontal and turned. Proceed as in lesson 23.

29. Complete drawing of group sketched 27th lesson. Attention to rendering. Proceed as in lesson 24.

30. Test Drawing.—Group illustrating principles reviewed during the term, or picture study: "Paysage"—Corot.

31. Plant Form Drawing.—Blocking in and drawing foreshortened leaf, or paint vegetable or spray in water color.

32. Draw simple spray in vertical position, or paint vegetable or spray in water color.

33. Draw simple spray in vertical position, or paint spray or flower in water color.

34. Draw simple spray in vertical position, or paint spray or flower in water color, or picture study: "Maddonna of the Chair"—Raphael.

(To be concluded next week.)

In an Old Trunk.

Baby Finds a Bottle of Carbolic Acid and Drinks it.

While the mother was unpacking an old trunk a little 18 months baby got hold of a bottle of carbolic acid while playing on the floor and his stomach was so badly burned it was feared he would not live for he could not eat ordinary foods. The mother says in telling of the case:

"It was all two doctors could do to save him as it burnt his throat and stomach so bad that for two months after he took the poison nothing would lay on his stomach. Finally I took him into the country and tried new milk and that was no better for him. His Grandma finally suggested Grape-Nuts and I am thankful I adopted the food for he commenced to get better right away and would not eat anything else. He commenced so get fleshy and his cheeks like red roses and now he is entirely well.

"I took him to Matamoras on a visit and every place we went to stay to eat he called for Grape-Nuts and I would have to explain how he came to call for it as it was his main food.

"The names of the physicians who attended the baby are Dr. Eddy of this town and Dr. Geo. Gale, of Newport, O., and anyone can write to me or to them and learn what Grape-Nuts food will do for children and grown-ups too." Name given by Postum Co., Battle Creek, Mich.

Look in each package for the famous little book, "The Road to Wellville."

The Educational Outlook.

President Jordan, of Leland Stanford university, writes enthusiastically of the American college man in the *May Popular Science Monthly*. Dr. Jordan writes:

Here in the West we send our graduate students to the east, because we know that it will be well for them to know what homes their fathers came from. They need New England acquaintanceship, English culture, and German methods of thought. Far more does the Eastern graduate need what the West can give. The life in the foothills makes a man, if need be, of the Harvard doctor of philosophy. The world beyond the Missouri spreads his horizon and the swift oxygen in the Colorado sunshine swells the size of his heart. Some day men will go to Colorado and California for inspiration of force as poets go to Greece for the inspiration of beauty.

The Fergus county, Montana, free high school has issued a systematic bulletin of the county birds, such as is seldom seen coming from a secondary school. The classification was made by Prin. P. M. Siloway. A feature of the bulletin is the plates of birds, which include the American magpie, nest of ruby-crowned kinglet, nest and eggs of yellow warbler, desert horned lark, American osprey, white rumped shrike, and the Western vesper sparrow.

At the closing session of the Conference for Southern Education the following officers were re-elected: Pres., Robert C. Ogden; Vice-Pres., Edgar Gardner Murphy; Sec'y, H. J. Baldwin, of Alabama; Treas., William A. Blair, of North Carolina. The speakers at the last sessions were Bishops Lawrence, of Massachusetts, and McVicar of Rhode Island; Prof. George Baker, of Harvard; H. O. Murfee, of Marion, Ala.; Chancellor Walter B. Hill, of the University of Georgia, John Graham Brooks, of Cambridge, Mass., and Bishop Sessums, of Louisiana.

The opposition of all the college presidents of the state, except Cornell, was announced at a hearing before Governor Odell on the bill to appropriate \$250,000 to establish a state agricultural school in connection with Cornell university. President Merrill, of Colgate university, and Dr. A. V. V. Raymond, of Union college, were the speakers for this opposition movement. They insisted that Cornell should not get all the financial favors from the state to the detriment of the other colleges which were doing just as good work. They urged that the question be left open pending further investigation as to where this agricultural college should be placed.

The feature of the first day's session at the recent convention of the International Kindergarten Union was a discussion of "Has Not the Time Come When Education Should Prepare for Parenthood." The principal address was delivered by Mrs. MacLeish, of Chicago. "With the spiritual education of the child," she said, "should be given an understanding of the practical necessities of hygiene and physiology, and a knowledge of homemaking and home-keeping." The importance of mother training in the home was emphasized.

The Drew Seminary for Young Ladies at Carmel, N. Y., was destroyed by fire on May 3, causing a loss of \$125,000. All the pupils escaped, but several just missed being suffocated. The school was started sixty years ago and had a national reputation.

Extensive School Gardens.

The most extensive experiment in school gardens that has been undertaken

in Indiana is to be begun in Delphi under the direction of Supt. E. L. Hendricks. Mr. Hendricks plans to convert an old cemetery into a city park, certain portions being reserved for gardens. On the north side of the park will be vegetable gardens, each child having one of his own, six feet square. The child will be allowed to choose his vegetables, but they will have to be of such a variety that they will mature before the schools close for the summer. On the east side of the grounds will be a nursery in which various kinds of fruits will be planted. Here the children will be brought together to study the habits of birds and insects. In various places about the park there will be shrubbery and wild flowers, which will serve as subjects for botany lessons. Thus agriculture, bird study, nature study, and botany will be possible for all Delphi's children within a small area.

Anti-Cigaret.

After a prolonged crusade Supt. R. A. Ogg, of Kokomo, Ind., has formed an anti-cigaret league with 3,000 members and has practically banished tobacco from the public schools. Aside from his efforts in forming the league, Superintendent Ogg has had a number of tobacco dealers arrested for selling cigarettes to public school pupils, and it is said to be impossible for a boy under sixteen years of age to buy tobacco in the city.

Superintendent Ogg is emphatic in his denunciation of the cigaret and in a recent speech he said of the effects on pupils of cigaret smoking:

"The effect of the habitual use of tobacco is manifest in various ways. The deterioration is apparent in the pupil, morally, mentally, and physically. It is shown in his monthly grades, in his conduct and actions in the study and recitation rooms, and in his general appearance.

"Aside from their grades it was not hard to distinguish between the users and non-users. The users were dull-eyed, sullen, stupid, listless, pale-cheeked, inattentive, thoughtless, petulant, drowsy, slow of comprehension, with no ambition to succeed in anything. Since the cigaret has been banished the grades of the former users are coming up, the improvement being marked and satisfactory."

Compromise for Control.

The legislative struggle for control of the public schools in Ohio has ended in a compromise. The house of representatives passed a bill to create small school boards elected at large. The senate passed a bill favoring the election of boards by wards or districts. At a conference a compromise was effected by which cities under 50,000 in population may have the small board system, while the cities over 50,000 may have the size of future boards determined by the vote of those boards now in existence. In the former class are sixty-five cities. In the latter are five, — Cleveland, Cincinnati, Toledo, Columbus, and Dayton.

The constitutionality of the law is contested on two grounds: That some of the present boards, having been themselves created by unconstitutional legislation, cannot constitutionally determine what the future boards of the cities shall be, and that the law itself is special legislation. The Ohio courts have already set aside laws on the ground that, being confined to cities of a certain population, they come under the head of special legislation, and are, therefore, unconstitutional. As the cities of the state are divided by this school code into two classes according to population, the code itself may be invalidated.

Recent Deaths.

Miss Anna M. Chandler, principal of the Escanaba, Mich., high school, died early this month. She was a graduate of the university of Michigan. She had taught at Saginaw, Owosso, and Marquette before going to Escanaba two years ago.

Mr. James Buckhout for more than fifty years a principal in the New York public schools, died May 5, at his home in the Bronx. Mr. Buckhout was born in New York city in 1833. He was a graduate of the Albany Normal college. The first school of which he was principal was the one at Fordham, formerly No. 64. He was later, and up to the time of his fatal illness, principal of P. S. 65, West Farms. He possessed valuable real estate, and he sold to the city three years ago what is now Echo Park.

Prof. A. L. Wade, of Morgantown, W. Va., the author of a number of pedagogical works, died on May 3. He was a well-known lecturer on education.

Daniel Ford Merrill, formerly a well-known New Hampshire teacher, died on May 3. He was graduated from Dartmouth college in 1836, and at the time of his death was the oldest graduate of that institution. He served as principal of the Haverhill, N. H., academy, and later established the Boston academy at Mobile, Ala. He was afterward superintendent of schools for Grafton county, N. H.

Prof. Maxwell Sommerville, the eminent archaeologist, who had occupied the chair of glyptology at the University of Pennsylvania during the past ten years, died in Paris on May 6.

The Rev. Dr. Emanuel V. Gerhart, of the Lancaster, Pa., Theological seminary, died on May 6. In 1851 he became president of Heidelberg college, Tiffin, Ohio, and in 1855 accepted the presidency of Franklin and Marshall college. In 1868 he became president of the theological seminary, a position which he held until his death.

Andrew McNally, the head of the house of Rand, McNally & Company, died on May 7 in Pasadena, Cal. Mr. McNally was born in Ireland and came to this country in 1858. He started a printing office in Chicago, and later issued an evening paper. After the great fire he embarked on a larger scale for himself, and gradually built up the house with which he is connected.

Thomas Brennan, for more than twenty-five years a member of the Chicago board of education, died April 30. The *Teachers' Federation Bulletin*, says of him, "In a just cause Mr. Brennan was a tower of strength. In 1899, an attempt was made to drop a large number of the teaching corps. Under the rules of the board, these teachers were entitled to a notification that such action was contemplated before any such drastic measures could be taken. On making an in-the rules had been disregarded, investigation, Mr. Brennan learning that clared the whole proceeding an outrage, and prevented this wholesale dismissal of teachers. Since that time, no teacher has been removed without proper notification. His fine sense of justice and long experience in dealing with teachers enabled him to discern the peculiarities in conditions which caused complaints either from principal or teacher, and seldom, if ever, was he at a loss for a solution of the difficulty. His sympathies once aroused, untiringly he labored until he succeeded in relieving the distress which had so confidently appealed to him. This same sense of justice made him a strong defender of equal rights for men and women in the schools."

The Greater New York.

The annual luncheon of the alumnae of Packer Collegiate Institute on May 7 was marked by protests against over-education of women. President Bachus, of the institute, talked on the growing "intemperance in education" for women, caused by the high requirements for entrance to colleges for women. He made a plea for a reaction against the sedentary life in the public and private girls' schools in New York city. The other speakers were Marion Harland, President Finley, of City college, and Miss Virginia Potter, of the Manhattan Trade School for Girls.

De Forest Preston, of the Brooklyn Teachers' Association, has announced that the field excursions and trolley outings so successfully introduced last summer will be continued this year. The matter has been placed in the hands of a special committee which will arrange excursions in the immediate future.

One of the largest Arbor day celebrations in New York city was at P. S. No. 177, Manhattan, where thirteen trees were planted. The trees were the gift of the Tenement Shade Tree committee of the Tree Planting Association. Speeches were made by Mrs. Silas P. Leveridge, of the association, and City Superintendent Maxwell.

Mrs. Ellen S. Auchmuty has given the New York Trade School five lots of land in the rear of its building. The property is valued at \$30,000.

At the April meeting of the Manual Training Teachers' Association Walter M. Mohr lectured on "Metal Working." He discussed, chiefly, art work in sheet brass, copper, and silver. The metals as used in the production of bowls, platters, and repousse work were discussed at length. The lecturer stated that the simple operations involved were of considerable educational value. If it were not quite feasible to include them in the elementary curriculum, they ought to find a place in that of the high school.

Transporting Pupils.

Governor Odell has signed the bill giving the board of education the right to make agreements for the transportation of school children on the street railways, at a rate not exceeding half fare to be paid out of the special school fund. Heretofore the supply department has been compelled to rely upon stages, as the car companies would not answer advertisements requesting bids. For the past fifteen years the board has been transporting children gratis in the rural districts, and it now carries many in the crowded sections. The average fare has been five or six cents.

One car only has been furnished the board during the past year by the Metropolitan Company. The rate has been two and one-half cents. It is a question whether the new law will accomplish anything, as the car companies are not compelled to enter into any contracts.

Course of Study Modifications.

There has been so much discussion and criticism of the new course of study in the past few months that the possibility

A writer in the Medical World says that as a pain reliever nothing equals antikamnia tablets. He says they do not depress the heart, but rather strengthen it. The adult dose is two five-grain tablets. They are obtained from all druggists, and precaution would advise keeping some about the home.

of some changes seemed imminent. However there will probably be no changes at once. The board of superintendents has decided to ask the principals at the end of the present school year for opinions as to the result of their experience with the present course, the time schedule, and the instruction under the same. This action is the result of a resolution of the committee on course of study of the board of education.

Dr. Haney on Design.

The interest in the lectures of Dr. James P. Haney continues unabated. Speaking upon "The Subject Matter of Design" on April 28. Dr. Haney said in part:

"The introduction of subject matter into a design calls for a knowledge of conventionalization and adaptation of conventionalized form to spaces which have been made. Conventionalization is the reduction of natural elements to the formal terms of design, previous to their use. It is the divesting of natural elements of their accidents and the retention of their essentials.

Design is not pictorial or photographic. Its function is not to illustrate nature. It therefore guarantees to follow nature no closer than it has need of her suggestions. Designs need not look like any specific natural forms. The essential difficulty in conventionalization lies in the fact that to use a natural form successfully implies a knowledge of its aspects from different points of view, that any one of these may be employed should occasion require.

In order to get the decorative vision, forms must be studied for their anatomy or their structural elements; the effects of light and shade must be noted; the prominent planes must be looked for; every line must be considered for its decorative possibility; the form must be studied from different points of view, since practically each change of aspect gives an entirely new form.

The following suggestions may be used as aids in conventionalization. Growth is to be followed only in essentials; the rhythm of parts should be preserved; transition lines aid to relate forms and masses. In converting forms into decorative elements, they may be changed to fit different spaces, and different aspects of a form may often be given in similar spaces. Conventional elements need not always be introduced as separate elements. The strong line caused by division into elements should be used only when movement is needed. The same degree of conventionalization should be maintained thruout the different parts of a design.

The study of conventionalization depends on the study and drawing of forms in their different aspects; the analysis of these forms, or the recognition of construction; the simplification of forms, or the omission of details; the adaptation or the relation of the simplified elements in harmonious combination, and their introduction into the situations prepared for them.

In approaching class work in design the limitations of the problems must be recognized. The chief points to be considered are the size and location of the masses and variations in treatment. In conventionalization few elements should be offered, and these such as can be easily adapted.

All design should be taught for use; the principles offered are for general guidance and development; latitude in practice should be given once the principles are understood. The study of design, like any other specialty, requires much practice with specific problems.

Recreation Centers Criticised.

Comptroller Grout has issued a report, the work of Mrs. Mathilde Coffin Ford, criticising the recreation centers conducted by the board of education. Commenting on the expenditure on these centers amounting to \$75,000 a year, Mrs. Ford says the work is largely experimental and that there is great need for applying the severest tests to the actual results achieved. It is stated that the attendance at the centers is comparatively small, while the salaries paid to teachers (which average, principal, \$100 a month; teacher, \$62.50; assistant teacher, \$37.50; junior assistant teacher, \$25; librarian, \$62.50; and pianist, \$40), are higher in proportion, when the hours of work are considered, than the salaries received by the regular teachers.

"In the recreation centers," says Mrs. Ford, "as elsewhere in the school system, there is too much supervision. Recreation does not flourish under too much management. The centers are too much like schools to achieve full success. A recreation center is not intended for a school, and to turn it into one is to defeat its purpose. In visiting these centers it is not unusual to see a study room teacher superintending eight or ten high school boys while they prepare their lessons for the following day, or a teacher of games watching a dozen little fellows play checkers or dominoes."

The report continues:

"According to official figures, during the school year ending 1903, 108 teachers were provided for an average attendance of 5,925 pupils. This is an average of fifty-five pupils per teacher. When it is remembered that these fifty-five pupils come and go during the evenings in such a way that only a small portion of them are present at any one time, it becomes plain that more teachers are provided than needed. The fact is, on an average, a teacher in a recreation center is paid from \$60 to \$100 per month for directing the play of a handful of children from 7:30 to 10 o'clock in the evening.

"There can be no doubt that public school buildings should be used as neighborhood centers, especially on the great East Side, where the population is congested and the conditions of life abnormal, but it is absurd to equip it with a formidable staff of learned instructors. The chief need is to check disorder. All that is required is a sufficient number of intelligent caretakers to maintain order and render such incidental assistance as the boys and girls may need in their games and amusements. At least one-third of the money now paid in salaries in the evening centers is useless expense. It is worse than extravagance, it is waste.

"At present the centers do not reach in any large way the class of people most in need of recreation. As a rule the boys and girls found in the centers do not come from the poorer homes of the city. This is true even on the East Side. The idea of the recreation center is good, but it has not yet been turned over into successful practice by the board of education. The centers should be maintained, but economy should be applied to their administration. Had this been done during the current year, thousands of dollars might have been saved without crippling the work."

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CONSUMPTION

Educational New England.

Supt. Jeremiah E. Burke, of Lawrence, Mass., has been elected supervisor of the Boston schools. Mr. Burke is a graduate of Colby college, and has served as superintendent of schools at Waterville, Me., Marlboro, Mass., and Lawrence.

Supt. Gordon A. Southworth, of Somerville, Mass., has been unanimously re-elected for the year ending April 30, 1905.

A gift of \$11,000 has been made to Amherst college for the endowment of a Henry Ward Beecher memorial lectureship in history and political and social science. Mr. Beecher was graduated from Amherst in 1834 and served on the college board of trustees from 1866 to 1878.

President Eliot, of Harvard, has publicly announced his approval of the scheme to merge the Harvard Scientific school and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The scheme, he explains, is to effect some arrangement by which each institution will retain its autonomy, but will avail itself of the joint teaching force, buildings, and equipment. This would greatly increase the efficiency of the two institutions. The corporation of the Institute of Technology has authorized its executive committee to confer with Harvard concerning the arrangement.

The Association of Class Secretaries of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology is leading a movement to prevent the union of that institution with Harvard university. During the last few months many thinkers among the institute's faculty have renewed action to prevent duplication of educational effort. President Pritchett seems inclined to favor some working arrangement, his chief reasons being that Eastern technical schools must make up for the cheaper education of the West and South by having a higher quality of education. The institute's alumni can see nothing but absorption by Harvard in any arrangement, and so propose to conduct a campaign for the continued independence of the technical institution.

The thirty-seventh annual meeting of the Massachusetts Association of Classical and High School Teachers was held in Cambridge on April 30. The program included the following papers and addresses: "Democracy and the Public School," Florence Dix, Girls' Latin school of Boston; "Discipline in the Public School," Arthur L. Goodrich, of Auburndale; "Some Characteristics of the New York City High Schools," Edward J. Goodwin; "The Secret of a Strenuous Life," Secretary George H. Martin, of the Massachusetts board of education, and "The Setting of a College Admission Paper in English," D. O. S. Lowell, Dorchester high school.

Connecticut Association.

The twenty-eighth annual convention of the Eastern Connecticut Teachers' Association was held at New London on May 6. The following addresses made up the program: "The Power of Our Expectation," Supt. William C. Bates, Fall River, Mass.; "Characteristics of an Efficient Secondary School Teacher," Prof. W. B. Jacobs, Brown university; "The Development of Language in the Elementary School," Prin. J. B. McFadden, Pawtucket, R. I.; "The Story for Small Children," Assistant Supt. Ella L. Sweeney, Providence, R. I.; "Beginnings: With Special Reference to Reading and Arithmetic," Prin. Frank O. Jones, Dwight District, New Haven, Conn., and "How Can the Public School Develop the Spiritual Life," Pres. W.

H. P. Faunce, Brown university. The officers of the meeting were: Pres., A. E. Peterson, Willimantic; Vice-Pres., H. N. Dickinson, Colchester; Sec'y. and Treas., G. D. Taylor, Niantic.

School of Methods in Music.

Music has for many years been a feature of public school work, but it is only within the last fifteen years that the necessity for highly trained supervisors has been recognized. Even to-day in many places the supervisor is a teacher who was successful in music work in a grade room, and so received promotion. A comparison between the work in such a system and a system where the supervisor is trained in methods will bring immediate recognition of the value and necessity for such work. It was to meet this demand for good musical training that the New School of Methods in Public School Music was established. This year's session, the tenth in its history, is to be held at Boston in the New Century building, 177 Huntington avenue, from July 26 to August 11.

The purpose of the school is and always has been to raise the subject of public school music to a higher plane and to place it with other studies in the school curriculum; and to afford systematic and comprehensive training in the material of school music for all grades and in the most advanced methods of its presentation. Music supervisors, grade teachers, superintendents, and principals will be greatly benefited by attending this school. They will be made acquainted with music, and will be taught its laws, possibilities, and aims, until finally they obtain a good general idea of the subject, and a thorough understanding of its relations to the school-room. To supplement the work of the school, students will be provided with systematic monthly instruction, designed to afford constant inspiration throughout the year. This home study will be in the form of lessons accompanied by an examination paper as a general test, and will develop for each teacher the special subject pursued at the previous summer session.

The names on the faculty roll are among the most prominent ones connected with public school music. In the list are Thomas Tapper, the author of the *Natural Course in Music*; Hollis E. Dann, of Cornell university; Mrs. Emma A. Thomas, supervisor of music in Detroit, Mich.; Mrs. Frances Elliott Clark, supervisor in Milwaukee, Wis.; Mrs. Jessie L. Gaynor, author of "Songs of the Child World"; Emory P. Russell, director of music in the Providence, R. I., public schools; and Daniel Gregory Mason, editor of *Masters in Music*, whose recent articles on music in the *Outlook* have attracted widespread attention.

The course of study embraces instruction for three distinct classes and provides special work for graduates. In addition there are numerous lectures and round table discussions. Some of the special lecture topics for this year are: "Music in Rural Schools," "Music in Ungraded Schools," and "How to Secure Good Chorus Work." Correspondence regarding the Boston session should be addressed to the American Book Company, musical department, 100 Washington square, New York city.

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Education for the Negro.

The Conference for Education in the South was opened on April 26, at Birmingham, Ala. Col. T. G. Bush, representing the state of Alabama and the city of Birmingham, delivered the address of welcome. Pres. Robert C. Ogden, in his annual address declared that education for the negro is "the broadest and best definition of democracy. He said:

"The question is frequently asked, 'Why should there be a conference for education in the South?' It is assumed that the absence of sectional educational organizations in the East, North, or West implies that this one in the South is superfluous.

The conditions of education in the South have furnished a field for interesting study to many educators. The discussions of this conference and the administration of the two boards have evolved a spirit of investigation. Great service has been rendered, not only by the secretaries and some members of the boards, but also by presidents and professors in the universities by governors and educational executives in various states.

The results of such study demonstrate again that this conference for education is a concrete response to an existing need of the South. But more than this—familiarity with the facts cannot fail to prove the right of the conference to an ever-growing abundant life.

The claim that, altho this organization is adapted to the particular need of one section of the country, it should command the interest of good Americans throuth the land is, without doubt, well founded. A sympathetic response may be expected just in proportion to an intelligent understanding of the conditions.

An explanation of the life of this conference would be deficient and misleading if it failed to recognize that the conference owes much of its continued growth and broadening influence to the sympathy and support of the higher institutions of learning. The great universities and some of the leading colleges of the North have been represented in the membership year by year, and the higher institutions of learning in the South have been constant and generous in their sympathetic aid. But the conference is not merely an organization of

Gettysburg and Washington.

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educators. It is a popular body. Business men and professional men, public-spirited citizens, patriotic women, good people of various stations in life attend the meetings in such numbers that no buildings used for the sessions in the several cities that have thus far made the conference welcome have been equal to the audiences desiring to attend. It is therefore unique. Associations for the promotion of local public interest in education or in some special study are not rare. Great professional organizations exist, notably the N. E. A., with its splendid executive equipment and truly national character. But it has remained for this conference to command the direct interest of eleven states and sympathetic representation from as many more in a movement to influence the people, and especially the rural people, in the development of a larger interest in and intelligent demand for improved popular education. This fact is so significant and important as to require especial attention and wide publication.

The ordinary citizen has a duty to perform in respect of public intelligence. Democracy is a social organization. Political liberty demands a solemn surrender to social service. No man rightly understands the truth of democracy until he recognizes its demand for the greatest nobility of self-sacrifice.

The aristocracy of education has passed. The importance of the average citizen is more than ever apparent as the experiment of our democracy proceeds in its evolution. Not the least present evidence of this fact is the appeal of this conference to the business man and the chance here given him to get a broader and better definition of democracy."

Bishop Galloway, of Jackson, Miss., delivered an eloquent address on "The Negro and the South."

"I would not presume to speak dogmatically with reference to the future status of the negro. On what specific line the race will move thru the coming centuries I cannot attempt to prophesy, but I do know that all our dealings with these people should be in the spirit and according to the ethics of the Man of Galilee. And we must insist that the negro have equal opportunity with every American citizen to fulfill in himself the highest purposes of an all-wise and beneficent Providence.

Whatever the cause or causes, there is no disguising the fact that there is great unrest and growing discontent among the negroes of the South. They are beginning to feel friendless and helpless. The frequent lynchings that disgrace our civilization, the advocacy by some of limiting to the minimum the school advantages provided for them, and the widening gulf of separation between the younger generations of both races, have produced a measure of despair.

There are few negroes in my native state of Mississippi, owners of property, who would not sell out at a fair valuation. Many of the thriftiest and most conservative feel, whether justly or not, that sentiment is so hostile to their race as to make all their values insecure, and as opportunity offers they are quietly leaving the sections in which they have long lived and labored.

Mistakes that have become a tragedy were made by some misguided persons who came South after the war to be the political teachers and leaders of the negroes. Representing themselves as the only friends of the recently emancipated race, they made denunciation of former slave owners an apology for their presence and a part of the negro's education. That policy only complicated the difficult problem. It poisoned the spirit of one race and aroused the fierce antagonism of the other. Hate was planted in the hearts where the seed of love should have been sown, and races that ought to

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dwelt together in unity were separated by bitter hostility. The times of such folly are gone, but their tragic results are our mournful heritage.

Now let us consider some of the duties we owe these people committed to us as a trust.

They must be guaranteed the equal protection of the law. All the resources of government should be exhausted in protecting innocence and punishing guilt. There should be no aristocracy in crime. A white fiend is as much to be feared as a black brute. The racial line has no place in courts of justice. Offenders against the peace and dignity of the state should have the same fair trial and the same just punishment, whatever their crime or color of skin.

I give it as my deliberate judgment that there is never an occasion when the resort to lynch law can be justified. However dark and dreadful the crime, punishment should be inflicted by due process of law. Every lyncher becomes a law despiser, and every law despiser is a betrayer of his country. The lynching spirit, unrestrained, increases in geometrical progression.

The right education of the negro is at once a duty and a necessity. All the resources of the school should be exhausted in elevating his character, improving his condition and increasing his capacity as a citizen. The policy of an enforced ignorance is illogical, un-American, and un-Christian. It is possible in a despotism, but perilous in a republic. If one fact is more clearly demonstrated by the logic of history than another, it is that education is an indispensable condition of wealth and prosperity. Ignorance is a cure for nothing.

From the declaration that education has made the negro more immoral and criminal, I am constrained to dissent. There are no data or figures on which to base such an indictment or justify such an assertion. On the contrary, indisputable facts attest the statement that education and its attendant influences have elevated the standard and tone of morals among the negroes of the South. The horrid crimes which furnish an apology for the too frequent expressions of mob violence in these parallels, almost without exception, are committed by the most ignorant and brutal of the race.

My message is to the younger people of the South. Into their strong hands the country is soon to be committed. The facts of history eloquently confirm the wise observation of Goethe, that "the destiny of a nation at any given time depends upon the opinions of its young men who are under twenty-five years of age." Upon them must devolve the solution of this problem. It requires great wisdom and long patience. But God rules, and right the day must win.

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